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POLITICS AND EDUCATION

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It is an interesting commentary on American political science that we should be setting out at this late hour to explore the relation of the state to education, but there is nothing astounding about it when we reflect upon the history of both the state and education in this country. The very existence of such separate sciences and disciplines as "economics," "politics," "sociology," and "education," is an indication of the moral and intellectual anarchy which has reigned supreme in the United States for the last hundred years. The father of the science of politics, Aristotle, had the true conception of the subject when he brought within its domain domestic and public economy and education as well as the forms and processes of government. And Aristotle's eighteenth century successor, Adam Smith, rightly named the science over which he presided, "Political Economy."

It remained for the nineteenth century to fall upon evil days. Thinking of the whole scheme of government and society became too painful. Therefore we separated "economics" from "politics," as if one could treat the production and distribution of wealth as a matter apart from the whole structure of government and law upon which property depends for its accumulation and defence. We took "politics" out of political economy, as if we could separate a scheme of government from the funda-

mental economic purposes which it is designed to serve. Then we took domestic economy and made it a branch of the cook-stove science, as if the management of a household were no matter of public interest and concern. Finally, we developed a science of sociology, blandly assuming that there is a science of society independent of the state which is responsible for the existence of great societies and without which societies would disintegrate into warring elements.

This remarkable intellectual development is largely due to a course of events which is obvious enough; that is, to the rise and growth of modern industrialism and the overthrow of the rigid feudal state which came down from the Middle Ages. Economics was separated from politics because the mill-owners of England and the United States felt themselves competent to run their business in their own way without any interference from the state. All they wanted the state to do was to act as a big policeman and beat over the head any workingman who rioted for better wages or any thief who sought to carry off property without due process of law. In this country the anarchy of the mill-owners was acceptable also to the farmers, particularly of the western frontier, for they were amply able to take care of themselves, surrounded as they were with all the means of livelihood which could be gathered by hard and unremitting labor. It was under these circumstances that there was developed a so-called science of economics wholly independent of the science of politics. No one is to be blamed for it. The hand is subdued to the dye in which it works, and the mind and the world, as William James remarks, have evolved together.

But the proper relation of education to the state can never be worked out until we have united once more under the hospitable roof of politics those things which should never have been put asunder.

In attempting to gather up some of the shattered fragments of the good old science of political economy, and to see this matter of the state and education as a whole, it is necessary to inquire into the nature of the state. There are many to-day who speak of the state as if the essence of it were the same thing in all the countries of the world, though of course no

intelligent person assumes that the states of the world are all identical in character. States are, in fact, in every stage of development from that of absolute monarchy to complete democracy; that is, from the rule of one to the rule of all adults, men and women alike. Broadly speaking they still fall into the three classes set up by Aristotle: the rule of one, the rule of the few, and the rule of the many. In each, education must, by the nature of circumstances, perform quite different functions.

In the first two classes of states there exists a rigid order, and education being the servant of the ruling power its prime function is to create a moral and intellectual condition in the masses favorable to the *status quo*. In states of the first class, it is usually thought desirable to restrict education within the narrowest limits—particularly to the barest rudiments with perhaps some applied science which up to date has never been intentionally revolutionary, although it is in the long run the most revolutionary element in the modern world. Complete ignorance is the best safeguard of an absolute monarchy. Witness Mexico under Diaz and Russia under the Romanoffs.

When we consider closely states of the second class; namely, those in which a few rule, we have a somewhat different problem. If it is possible for the ruling few to absorb the higher intellectuals who naturally arise where educational opportunities are extensive, by giving them places in the army or the church or the civil service or by conferring knighthoods or iron crosses upon them, widespread education of the "proper sort" becomes useful in maintaining the established order and in increasing the production of wealth.

In such states the governing class is relatively small and is recognized by law. The social order is rigid and all persons are fitted into their predetermined niches in society. The old saw

> God bless the squire and his relations
> And keep us all in our proper stations

accurately describes the government of England in the eighteenth century and the government of Prussia in the twentieth century. In Prussia, as you know, the state is to-day frankly a class-state. The voters are divided into three groups: those

paying the first third of the taxes, those paying the second third, and all the rest—which all the rest is to be taken to mean about ninety-five per cent of the adult males. In other words, in Prussia about five per cent of the adult males rule and their rule is acknowledged by law. In that five per cent the landed gentry constitute the dominent element, particularly when the composition of the Prussian upper chamber, or House of Lords, is taken into account.

The ruling class of Prussia is the landed class which is fostered and supported by the King of Prussia, the German Emperor, as the surest foundation for the state. As that brilliant American economist, Veblen, has pointed out, the chief difference between the state in England and in Prussia is due to the fact that in the former the capitalist classes with their dynamic ideas and their everchanging methods and processes have conquered the social order; whereas in the latter country, Prussia, the landed gentry—the class which tends to rigidity on account of the unchanging economic processes upon which it depends for a livelihood—has been able to keep the restless capitalists and their dependents, the working classes, within the bounds of the old order. They have also largely restricted the area of feverish capitalistic enterprise. The railways are owned by the state; so are many of the mines and other sources of raw materials; in the cities public utilities are municipally owned; the activities of real estate speculators are limited by extensive municipal ownership of land and houses; and the great industrial concerns are closely supervised by the state. But more important than all, the capitalists are forbidden to create a vast independent and revolutionary proletariat, by laws which offer sickness, unemployment, and old age insurance as the price of good affection toward the state. The complete bankruptcy of the so-called "revolutionary" socialists is an evidence of the foresight of Bismarck who in supporting state socialism deliberately set out to destroy industrial and democratic socialism.

Now in such a state as Prussia, the relation of education to the state is easily determined. In the first place, only the ruling minority have a share in deciding what shall be taught and how. Under the three-class system of voting, the

vast majority of males count for practically nothing in the settlement of government policies, central, local, or municipal. The masses have to take the educational doses prescribed for them by the ruling classes, who know that they rule and intend to continue to rule unless the educational system breaks down. Tom, Dick, Harry, and Will cannot rise in Prussia and say "I will not have that kind of education; take it away." There is no doubt in the minds of those who determine the curriculum as to what should be taught: vocational subjects to make good working men and women, history which inculcates proper respect for duly constituted authorities, and nothing which raises any questions as to the wisdom of those whom God in his infinite solicitude has called to rule over the taught.

Far be it from me to question the wisdom of Providence in creating so many states of this character, but respect for plain facts of our national life compels me to say that the Prussian system of education cannot be introduced into the United States. The first reason is that our state is, as a matter of truth, not constituted like the Prussian state. The second reason is that the materials are not here to create such a state. The third reason is that millions of Americans would give their life blood to prevent the establishment of such a state on these shores. In this I mean no breach of neutrality. With due scientific calm and without expressing any preference in the matter I think I am stating accurately the opinions of most of my countrymen.

This being true, we might as well say at the outset that however much we may have to learn from Germany about the relation of the state and education, it will do us little good, because of its utter inapplicability in the political society in which we live. We do not have a rigid state but a constantly changing state. We have no legally recognized ruling class (except in the East) authorized to prescribe for everybody what shall be studied in the schools. While the real political power in this country may be concentrated in the hands of relatively few they cannot so confine it as to prevent opposition from occasionally upsetting their plans. In the beginning of our history the fathers sought to establish a class state by restricting the right to vote to those possessing certain property quali-

fications, but that class state was broken down within about fifty years of the Declaration of Independence. The male state which succeeded the property state is being broken down in the West and is destined to be broken down everywhere unless we males save ourselves by excluding women from all except the first years of the graded schools. We have, therefore, not a rigid society to adjust our education to, but a constantly changing society.

When I say that the class state was broken down with the abolition of property and other qualifications on voting and office holding, I do not mean to say that classes and economic groups disappeared. On the contrary, they continued to exist; they developed in strength and in complexity; and they pursued no less vigorously than before their special interests. As I have attempted to show in two volumes on the first years of our politics as an independent nation, the original conflict in the American state (*Staat*) was between the capitalistic or commercial classes led by Hamilton on the one hand and the agrarian and small-folk party led by Jefferson on the other. Jefferson frankly, explicitly, and without reserve enunciated it as the cardinal principle of his faith that a republic could only endure while it was founded on an agrarian basis. To speak more concretely, he thought that only a nation composed of fairly equal, independent, land-owning farmers, eating their bread in the sweat of their brows, free from the domination of workshop owners, and standing upright as economically independent citizens could possess the virtue and fearlessness necessary for a democratic republic. The working class "mobs" of the great cities, he declared, add so much strength to the body politic as sores do to the human body. Hamilton on the other hand was the spokesman of the capitalistic—the commercial, industrial, and financial—classes. He defended the virtue of the working class against agrarian aspersions and declared his faith in the excellence of government by the rich and well born—meaning principally merchant princes, public security holders, incipient captains of industry, and the well-to-do landed gentry of the Hudson valley.

But while they differed in their conception of the proper basis for the state, Hamilton and Jefferson also differed as to

the proper sphere of the state. Jefferson thought the state a necessary evil and would have reduced its functions to the lowest minimum compatible with the maintenance of social order. Hamilton, on his part, wanted a state of considerable strength—one at least capable of advancing the interests of the capitalistic class by supporting funding and banking operations and maintaining protective tariffs. In the beginning Jefferson believed that government best which governed least, that government which interfered least with private persons and property; and Hamilton agreed with him, except that he wanted enough government to protect industry and commerce and lend strength to the capitalistic group.

This conflict between agrarianism and capitalism has been the fundamental cause of great party struggles in the United States from that day to this. The Republican party of our day, though connected in its origin with an anti-slavery movement, made for a time a bridge between the industrial and the agricultural elements by combining protective tariff with a homestead act which gave free land to thousands of farmers; but in the main, outside of the slavery struggle, it was capitalistic in its operations. It owed most of its strength in the industrial states of the East to its espousal of the protective tariff as against the free trade tendencies of the agrarians led by the slavocracy of the South. As the laconic account of the Republic convention in Chicago in 1860 runs, the cheering for the platform was especially loud and long when the tariff and homestead planks were read. Slavery and the Civil War obscured the real contest which was identical in nature with that between Hamilton and Jefferson.

After the Civil War was over economic changes brought about new policies of state on the part of the agrarians. Before the advent of railways and great industries they had been against government interference with economic processes, except perhaps the running of printing presses to make paper money. After the Civil War, when the railway and industrial magnates came, the agrarians abandoned their old-time opposition to government intervention. They began to regulate railway and warehouse rates, for they were the principal shippers over the long-haul lines; and when regulation of rates did not produce

the desired reductions they led in the agitation for government ownership. Thus we witnessed the spectacle of a gentleman, who boasts that he learned all of his political science from Jefferson, advocating in 1906 the government ownership of the great means of transportation. In addition to such extensions of the state's functions and power, we find advocated government interference with the distribution of wealth in the form of graduated income taxes and inheritance taxes. In other words, the state socialistic tendencies in the United States have come in the main from what is known as populistic sources, that is, from the farmers.

Mr. Wilson is the spokesman of the agrarians and the small folk generally as was Thomas Jefferson. In his *New Freedom* he clearly sets forth his opinion that the main issue in the United States is between what he is pleased to call large business interests on the one hand and the farmers and small business interests on the other hand. While not frankly as agrarian in his philosophy, he makes no concealment of his concern for the small man attempting to make headway against large capitalistic interests. His tenderness for the farmer was reflected in the reduction of the tariff; his solicitude for both the farmer and the petty business man was manifested in the Clayton anti-trust bill and the currency bill; and his recognition of the weight of labor in politics was revealed in what Mr. Gompers called the Magna Carta of labor.

While the Democratic party was swinging around to the quasi-socialistic program, the Republican party was concerned with state interference principally in the form of a protective tariff and the injunction in labor disputes and it steadily put away bidding for the vote which favored other forms of state intervention. Out of this refusal of the Republican party to depart from its own ideas of state intervention grew, in my opinion, the progressive movement which sought to preserve and develop large capitalistic enterprises and at the same time placate the quasi-socialistic demands which had been fostered among the farmers and the working classes. Such was the view of the matter expounded by Mr. Roosevelt in his reply to Mr. Wilson's *New Freedom.*

While this conflict has been going on between capitalists large

and small and the farmers and the working classes, there has been developed a new consciousness of identity of interest which has cut athwart the other lines. I refer to that social group known as "the public": persons who use the great utilities of modern times. This public has made itself felt particularly in the cities where the functions of government are steadily widening under the demand for better protection for health and safety, for lower rates for gas, electricity, and other commodities, for cleaner streets, for purer water supplies, and so on.

As a result of the pressure of these forces and many more that I have not time to name here, the activities of government steadily increase. New York City alone has nearly one hundred thousand employees, including the teachers. The government now regulates the rates of transportation on railways, it fixes the price of gas, it constructs subways, it carries packages by parcel post, it conducts a savings bank, it cleans the streets and removes wastes, it protects, or is supposed to protect us against dangerous diseases and against unsanitary and dangerous conditions in the factories. It would be a work of supererogation for me to give here a catalogue of state activities now developed in the United States.

But what, you may say, has this to do with education? Everything, in my opinion. Of all these conflicting interests, to which may the schools deliberately attach themselves? If to the frankly capitalistic and *laissez faire* group, advocating minimum interference except to protect and encourage industries, then a dreadful tempest would be raised by the farmers and small business people and working classes. If to the legions of the *New Freedom*, then what dire troubles would be raised by the other party to the national compact! To the public, it may be said; but the public is in constant struggle with these very same group interests. The public is to have fair railway rates, but what are fair rates? Are railways to be permitted to earn six per cent on their capital? If so, on what capital? That originally and actually invested, plus later increments?

In other words, the public has not worked out any program of consistent action which is so axiomatic in its features that the schools may reduce it to thirty-nine articles and use it as

a catechism. That being so, our educational system cannot be made rigid, and dogmatic. If we say that we must fly now to vocational schools, it will be asked and rightly asked: "What about the industries into which our students are to go? Is employment steady or are they likely to be thrown out of employment at any time through no fault of their own? Are proper safeguards thrown around them? Are wages determined by monopoly power in the hands of the employer, or by such power in the employees, or by higgling in the market? What will the state do to make fair conditions for them?"

On the other hand, if we pursue the old-fashioned literary program, are we to be indifferent to the fate of students who can not thus be prepared for the stern job of making a living?

Frankly, I do not believe that our educational authorities have been prepared thus far to face any of these questions fearlessly and resolutely and to think them through to the end. Much less have they been ready to answer them. To do this would have raised larger policies of state than the American public has been willing to consider. In other words, educators by the force of circumstances have been compelled to be, in the main, side-line spectators at a game not of their own making and to content themselves with being called in occasionally to advise or patch up some of the players.

By this I mean, our fundamental policies of state are not fixed as in Prussia—at least before the Great War—and there is no single ruling class continuously in power. On the contrary, our public policies are in state of flux and we have in command first one set of economic groups and then another. Educators cannot be the exponents of one public policy or the servants of any group. Neither can they become too zealous servants of the public without running counter to the imperious interests of some of the groups with which the public is in more or less constant conflict. This may be somewhat discouraging to those who fain would have some unchanging article of educational faith, but if the nature of the American state is as I have portrayed it then we have nothing to do but face the facts as they are.

This does not imply, however, that only a note of hopeless neutrality can be struck in American education. On the con-

trary we have more interesting and adventurous experiments to make than can be made in static states, and our task calls for higher talents than those required to defend a well-established class whose text-books and prayers are already stereotyped. Certain obligations seem to rest definitely upon us.

In the first place, there is plenty of room in our world for intellectual activities that have no immediate, dogmatic end in view, that merely contribute to knowledge, to personal power, and to enjoyment. I am prepared to justify an elaborate educational system if it could be shown that it was useless to the state or in the production of wealth. There are some things which even a dollar cannot buy.

In the second place, in view of the increasing activities of the state, called forth by the demands of the public, it is incumbent upon those in charge of our educational system to give serious attention to the training of public servants. It is an interesting fact that while the Standard Oil Company, the General Electric Company, and every large corporate enterprise in the country spends thousands of dollars annually to train up staffs of servants, the great corporation of New York City, spending forty millions a year on education, recruits its extensive official personnel largely from the open labor market through a system of more or less academic examinations—a method discredited by all the experience of great business concerns for the last quarter of a century.

In the third place, we can take up seriously the training of boys and girls for life vocations, but we must demand that those who press this experiment to a successful conclusion shall think beyond the schoolroom to the actual processes of industry into which these boys and girls are to go. A government that insists upon training boys and girls for factory labor and then allows them to be burnt up in fire traps ought not to command the acquiescence—to say nothing of the loyalty—of the teachers who do the work in the class room.

Finally, the crowning task of our educational system is the training of citizens—not lock-step citizens, but citizens entitled by every right of manhood and womanhood to express their personalities in the life of the republic. This is no simple problem in school management. It cannot be solved by elevating

the Constitution into a sort of Prussian state, the worship of which alone will produce good and wise citizens. American citizenship is not merely citizenship of obedience; it is a citizenship of strife and contention, of education and progress through conflict. It is in fact. Then why in heaven's name should our books in civics be as colorless as chalk? Above all, why should they assume that American experience embraces all that is important or significant? By a training in citizenship based upon a knowledge of the actual nature of the American state, could we not contribute to the elimination or mitigation of useless and unnecessary antagonisms and facilitate the peaceful solution of others? If educators should view their task in this light and rise above the ordinary strife of politics, might we not hope for a day when some of the contestants for power in the state will turn to the schools for wisdom as well as for help? That would be a consummation sufficiently ample to reward great labors.

POLITICAL THEORY AND EDUCATION

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The intimate connection between education and politics is a commonplace so trite to the student of educational history that another contribution to the subject may appear to require some apology. The present war, however, seems to call for an intellectual stocktaking in every field of human endeavor and not least in that of education. From the point of view of education the war has brought national characteristics so well into the forefront that it may be well to seize the opportunity to consider how far these qualities are the product of the respective educational systems, or, on the other hand, how far those systems are conditioned by and in turn reflect other factors. Attention is confined here to England and Prussia partly because they occupy the centre of the stage, but mainly because they represent two extremes in politics and education. A similar analysis could, of course, be made for any other country.

The industrial and commercial development which marked the beginning of the nineteenth century in England led to much systematization and organization in those two fields in which the state played but little part. Both commerce and industry made remarkable advances through the efforts of individuals who turned to advantage England's natural position and resources. The rise of the factory was accompanied by the rapid increase of urban population and the decay of agriculture and with it the consequent decline of feudal relationships. Where the state intervened, its intervention took place spasmodically and not as the result of any definite policy. The rise of a merchant class whose power lay in the accumulation of wealth was accompanied by a demand for a share in social leadership. As contrasted with the prevailing aristocratic

régime, the new class was characterized by vigor and initiative, by independence and a spirit of innovation, by that energy and strength of purpose that ensure the success of the individual. Associated and contemporary with this progress were the developments in philosophy and political economy. The chief interest of the political philosopher was how to secure the greatest happiness of mankind—a definite, practical problem, not mere speculation. The answer was found by the utilitarians in the thesis that the greatest happiness of the greatest number is the true principle of government. In other words, the rule of the majority is the best possible approach to social justice. This, however, did not involve state intervention because "interest well understood leads man to find his own delight in that of others." This view was supplemented by the opposition of political economists to restriction by the state or any interference with the individual in production and exchange. Superadded to these two views was the application of the theory of evolution to political theory.

On the basis of these theories a corresponding theory of the state was built up. The state is not an entity existing apart from the individuals composing it; it is a sum of the individuals who make it up, and its function is to minister to their needs and to create conditions for the free play and development of personality or character. The state thus becomes the trustee of the whole community of individuals in the interest of their common good. The spring of state action is justice, and state morality must conform to the canons of individual morality. The practical implications of this theory are obvious. The burden is placed on the individual. The action of the state, it is felt, leads to mechanical woodenness. Hence no general formula for state action can be laid down, and interference by the state is desirable only as the case demands. The state exists to ensure the security of the individuals, and social control has as its aim the extension and maintenance of individual freedom. The English educational system is accordingly no mere accident; it is not chaotic or the result of caprice: although its aim is not so cut and dried or so definitely stated as that of Germany, and although the machinery is not so obvious, the English system of education, in its own way, is as efficient as the

German, if efficiency means the harmonizing of aim and result. The permanent welfare of the public is in English theory bound up with the rights of the individual, while individual well-being is founded upon the responsible life of a rational creature, on the opportunities for self-realization. State control can not ensure this; state control must lead to uniformity, while voluntary effort through multiplicity of types alone can lead to vigor of character in the individuals making up the state. It is the belief in personality and growth as the foundation of liberty that characterizes the English educational system. No better summary can be found than the words of Mill: "All that has been said of the importance of individuality of character, and diversity in opinions and modes of conduct, involves as of the same unspeakable importance, diversity of education. A general state education is a mere contrivance for moulding people to be like one another, and as the mould in which it casts them is that which pleases the predominant power in the government, whether this be a monarch, a priesthood, an aristocracy, or the majority of the existing generation; in proportion as it is efficient and successful, it establishes a despotism over the mind, leading by natural tendency to one over the body. An education established and controlled by the state should only exist, if it exists at all, as one among competing experiments, carried on for the purpose of example and stimulus to keep the others up to a certain standard of excellence." (*On Liberty.*)

The Prussian case, because it represents something more positive and tangible, is much more obvious. A philosophy of non-interference, such as that which underlies the English scheme of things, lends itself too readily to misunderstanding; it may too easily be regarded as mere indifference rather than a definite policy. All the factors that made the English theory what it is are absent from the Prussian. In England the people sided with the king against the feudal lords and the Church; in Prussia the king is one of the leaders of the feudal régime. The theory of the divine right of kings which received such a sad shock in England in the seventeenth century has enjoyed a twentieth century recrudescence in Germany, and the medieval "gospel of his majesty's sacred person" has been revived

in such an exaggerated form that the king can gravely make such statements as the following: "Regarding myself as an instrument of the Lord I go in my way, whose goal is the welfare and peaceful development of our Fatherland, and in so doing I am indifferent to the views and opinions of the day."

The English population has for more than a century been mainly urban, a factor that tends to make for greater interchange of thought and to break down the forces of conservatism; democracy, in other words, had its origin in the town, where novel situations demanded new modes of treatment. The people of Prussia during the period of her political reconstruction was largely agricultural, and if one may generalize, temperamentally docile, uncritical, and self-complacent. Commerce and industry in England have owed everything to individual enterprise and initiative; in Prussia they have been fostered and pampered by the government from the days of Frederick the Great.

The factory system and an urban population developed too late to have any influence on the constitution which had already become fixed in its main outlines. Not only is it felt that commerce and industry have grown under the aegis and encouragement of the government, but that government through anticipating demands for social legislation,—a policy conceived by Bismarck,—has aimed to place the people under a further obligation to the state. Bismarck and the King merely continued the policy of paternalism begun in a measure by Frederick the Great, and definitely established during the period of reconstruction after 1806. A state has been developed in which the individual has been trained to look to an efficient administration, with all the defects of bureaucracy and officialdom, for everything that affects his personal comfort and welfare; he has shown himself willing to have his life regulated in every phase from the day of his birth up, because he feels that the material conditions which he enjoys are the gift of the state. The state has thus come to be a separate entity with a soul, not merely the sum of the individuals who make it up.

The material conditions that underlie this feeling have been supplemented by the philosophical theory that finds possible the coexistence of the supremacy of the state and the supremacy

of the individual, each ruling in definitely recognized fields. The state is free without interference to organize and provide the mechanism which ensures a smooth course for the life of the individual,—for this surrender the individual receives in return all the advantages and benefits accruing from technical efficiency and the privilege of developing the "true inner freedom of his soul"; in civil and political action the individual accepts the gospel of duty to authority. The state thus has a separate existence, and its purpose is to secure the ideal and spiritual ends of its members. The state thus holds itself responsible for encouraging and fostering those conditions that make for efficiency; hence trade and industry, literature, science and art, philosophy and religion, education, and the army—all these factors that are included in that elusive term, *Kultur*, come within the purview of state activity.

Further support is given to the conception by the political theory which regards the be-all and end-all of the state as power. The belief that the state can only attain its greatest moral ends with increase of power is a theory which makes might the supreme right and places state morality on a different footing from individual morality. Government accordingly is subject to no limit and the individual is merely a pawn to be disposed of as the needs of the state demand. Political questions thus become questions of power, as Bismarck said, not matters for discussion from the point of view of individual needs. The power of the state is autocratic and is exercised through a bureaucratic system of administration which renders all activities including the church, the universities, and the schools, subject to state control. Efficiency undoubtedly results and definite standards are established, but at the cost of individual initiative. The state thinks for the individual, it relieves him from the responsibility of making decisions, and the bureaucracy knows what is for his good.

The educational implications are obvious. The ministry of education insists on uniformity; it defines the standards; it prescribes the courses of study; it regulates admission to the professions, and to none more rigorously than to that of teaching. It mobilizes public opinion through the schools and through the control of appointments in the universities. The routine is

excellent; efficiency of the highest degree is attained; but the individual is suppressed and trained to become a cog in the political wheel. While Prussia has developed a harmonious system of national education, England has hesitated to exercise state power to control private initiative. It is unthinkable that the English government will ever forbid parents to send their children to school in a foreign country or even in one of the colonies,—in Prussia parents may obtain permission to educate their children abroad only in exceptional cases. The one system aims at providing for freedom of growth and the development of personality, the other maintains the right of the state to transmit the dominant opinions through closely supervised schools. The one encourages variety of experiment by placing no obstacles in the way of private endeavor; the other subordinates all educational practice to the scrutiny of a uniform administrative machinery. Both systems secure the results they desire, but with this difference, that the German results can more easily be measured, while the English results are too readily dismissed as chaotic, mainly because they consist of qualities that cannot be measured easily—initiative, individuality, and variability. Both systems are efficient; both may be drawn upon for valuable lessons; but the final estimate depends not on the degree of efficiency attained, so much as on the ideals that are felt to be more desirable for humanity.

PROGRESS IN PRACTICAL ARTS EDUCATION*

By BENJAMIN R. ANDREWS
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It is obvious that there is under way a great social movement to establish vocational schools. Just as during the last century schools became available which provided for every boy and girl the rudiments of general education and the opportunity at least of secondary and higher education, so in this new century we are to add to general education a specific training for the vocation and the trade. In reviewing present progress in practical arts education, I shall speak first of the relation of Teachers College to this movement, especially in its School of Practical Arts, and then point out some illustrations of national progress in this particular type of education.

The School of Practical Arts of Teachers College has emphasized several issues of general importance for vocational education. In the first place it has maintained the open educational door which permits students to enter from technical as well as classical high schools and it provides for graduate study leading to the master's and doctor's degrees. It is on the through route in education and this test, which it successfully meets, must be applied to all the vocational training which we are organizing in America—Does it leave the way open for further education? In the next place, its curriculum provides that in its four-year college course every student must take academic and cultural studies in addition to the technical courses which fit for the particular vocation. Its curriculum illustrates the important principle that in providing vocational training we must not reduce the opportunity for liberal training now open to any individual, but must superimpose the technical training upon a sound liberal training, whether it be of

* An address before the Teachers College Alumni Association, February 18, 1916.

secondary or of collegiate rank, and that we must, while training for vocations, extend as liberally as possible the opportunities for cultural training as such. A third suggestion is one having reference to the curriculum of the lower elementary grades which is based on our experience in unifying many technical subjects in our School of Practical Arts and on experiments in the Speyer School; namely, that in the lower grades there be combined in a single subject to be called perhaps "practical" arts, all the technical subjects taught separately in the grades, industrial arts, household arts, fine arts, applied or general science, etc. In this way our overcrowded school curriculum can be relieved, and a subject of great worth developed which will be an instrument of economic and social enlightenment for boys and girls alike. A fourth suggestion for general vocational education will be found in the successful experiment of the School of Practical Arts in establishing practice work as a method of instruction to supplement class room teaching. Vocation experience must be given in order to train for vocations, and hence our successful practice work in community institutions, such as schools, homes, hospitals, clubs, is noteworthy for other institutions and for education generally.

Finally, the results obtained in the School of Practical Arts are such as to give encouragement to any one questioning the value of vocational training. First, the quality of our students in practical arts at the end of the first four-year cycle of the School shows that our student body is developing sound scholarship and an earnest attitude toward life. The students desire to be ready for some definite service; they are "good stuff," and themselves justify the practical arts type of education, which joins to liberal education training for a specific calling. In the next place the graduates who have already left the School are in one field or another meeting with such success as proves the soundness of a national educational program to train every worker. Training very obviously pays; it pays the individual and it pays society. Again there is a large significance in the fact that there is pressing into the School of Practical Arts an increasing number of graduate students. Last year there were 95 graduate students, and this year there are 125 graduate students in addition to the 837 undergraduates

in practical arts. These graduate students are registered in household arts, nutrition, and industrial arts particularly, but also in fine arts and other fields. One most promising group of women is composed of college graduates who wish a one-year, home-makers' professional course. If this movement continues we shall shortly have a graduate School of Practical Arts parallel to the graduate School of Education and affording leadership to the great group of colleges now offering undergraduate practical art courses more or less parallel to our own undergraduate work. What a field there is here is indicated by the fact that two hundred and fifty colleges offer undergraduate courses in household arts alone. There is surely a need for the leadership which a graduate technical school of practical arts alone can give. Significant of this movement toward a graduate basis, too, has been the reorganization in industrial arts recently announced, whereby our shop courses in wood and metal are to be withdrawn and new emphasis is to be placed upon courses in the organization and administration of industrial and vocational education. The return next year to the faculty of Dr. David Snedden, a recognized national leader in this field, has also a high significance in the advanced work in practical arts education.

While we may be grateful that Teachers College has been able, in the ways suggested, to contribute by its School of Practical Arts something to progress in vocational education, yet that progress is a great national movement in which any one institution can play but a small part. Even a cursory inspection reveals signs of advance everywhere, and a few facts may be stated to illustrate this general progress.

Vocational education laws are being extended. Ten years ago Massachusetts, by the reports of its industrial education commission, and by its laws adopted shortly after providing a system of state-aided vocational schools and classes, announced the new era in which schools were to be established to train definitely for vocational efficiency. To-day six states, Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Wisconsin, and Indiana provide by law for systems of state-aided vocational schools administered under expert state supervisory officers, and nine other states give special financial aid to such schools.

A new experiment, that of state correspondence courses in vocations, is just now being tried in Massachusetts, and meantime the Federal Congress which two years ago enacted the Smith-Lever law aiding practical extension teaching for farm men and women, seems now likely to adopt the Smith-Hughes bill providing Federal grants for training and compensating vocational teachers generally; and is giving favorable consideration to Senator Smoot's bill to add an annual appropriation for research in home economics to the Federal support of each state agricultural experiment station.

Organized industry is supporting vocational education. The address of Samuel Gompers a year ago at the Richmond Industrial Education Convention pointed out the continued support of labor organization to vocational education for a dozen years, and its unchanging opposition to possible evils; for example, the control of such education by private auspices, the curtailing of individual opportunity for further advancement, false hopes of short cuts to efficiency, and the like. Employers have organized also to aid such vocational training, as witness the publications of the National Association of Corporation Schools. Local labor authorities, local employers, and the schools form the triple base which supports any sane system of vocational education; and the method used in the recent Minneapolis Survey to secure definite agreements in advance between employers and unions and the schools, is perhaps the great item of the year in practical arts education. In that city in twenty industries training courses are now possible upon special working agreements that after so many months or years of such and such instruction, by day courses, or evening courses, or during dull seasons, as the particular conditions may have dictated, young people shall pass into employment upon a definite wage scale, and be given preference over others who have not had training.

Vocational guidance or aid in selecting a calling is implied in a plan for training for callings. The other day, six years after the death of Professor Frank Parsons, the founder of the first vocational bureau in Boston, there came out Meyer Bloomfield's "Readings in Vocational Education," a seven-hundred-page volume of selected documents. Thus quickly has valuable

material collected in this field. The guidance problem of the schools is to be answered partly in prevocational classes, partly by the collecting of information regarding local industrial conditions, and making this available to the individual boy and girl who must choose. There is less hope of reading the stars and a growing recognition that the child must decide, not the counselor dictate. A very hopeful new approach is through the employment managers of companies who in an enlightened self-interest will try to place the applicant in the place best for the worker; hence the significance of the new course for employment managers at the Tuck Business School of Dartmouth, and of the recent conference of a group of such managers at the Industrial Education Convention.

Agricultural education is now obligatory in the rural elementary schools of twenty-one states; and elementary agricultural instruction is being successfully centered around practical projects. Obligatory high school agriculture curiously enough has lagged behind the elementary, for fear of bookish instruction if it is forced into schools before proper teachers and methods are developed. Seven states have expert supervision for agricultural educators from the state education department and seven from the state agricultural colleges. Clubs for farm boys and girls have made great gains—there were 7,909 such clubs last year; there were 151,000 club members in twenty-six of the thirty-three northern and western states, besides a great organization in fifteen southern states; there were 330 county agricultural agents at the north and west, 225 of whom were also working with the schools; and in time there will be 3,000 such local agents. This and other extension work in agriculture under the Smith-Lever Act is bringing vocational knowledge to boys and girls and to men and women on the farm.

Commercial education: Indications are that commercial education, long overlooked by educators, is now to receive their attention. Farrington's book on "German Commercial Education" and Thompson's on "Commercial Education in Secondary Schools" one hopes may mark the beginning of an era of professional study. The establishment of a school of business at Columbia University suggests the inquiry whether Teachers College should not develop a coördinate department of com-

mercial education and provide educational leadership in this most needy field. It possesses by far the largest group of vocational students (346,000) in secondary schools and colleges; and in high schools alone there are ten times as many commercial as agricultural students.

In household arts education, now introduced in nearly all city school systems, in all normal schools, in probably 3,000 high schools, in 250 colleges, progress has been marked by special emphasis upon practical training in household management or the all-round vocation of directing the home. Instruction is being provided both in the administration of the domestic home and in the institutional household. The need of the former is obvious to every one; the institutional household as a rapidly increasing field demands skilled administration, and our colleges can do much for it as well as for the domestic household. Startling conditions in institutional households have within a few days been brought to public attention through the efforts of the New York City Commissioner of Charities, who has placed at one time nineteen institutions for orphan children under the ban because they have not provided the decencies of a home which it was their business to furnish. Investigation showed inadequate bathing facilities, inadequate food, children without tooth brushes, and a general situation which calls for trained service from women specially prepared for institutional responsibilities.

Nurses' education: The institution worker must take herself seriously as the trained nurse has so successfully done in securing for herself professional standing. Here we have a striking illustration of a group of workers laboring to secure for themselves more adequate preparation for their vocation. The nurses have now begun a struggle to secure for their training schools educational endowments which will provide class rooms and laboratories, a permanent teaching staff, and other essentials of an institution for professional training. The alumnae of the Johns Hopkins Training School started recently an endowment fund to which their own members are contributing, to demonstrate possibilities of improving nurses' education. That the demonstration is needed is apparent when a state, as recently in the West, makes a large appropriation for nurses'

dormitories in the university hospital, but no provision for nurses' education.

Museums and vocational education: A word may be said for this institution which, paralleling the library, has important relations to training for vocations as yet scarcely appreciated in America. Signs of progress may be found in the last report of the United States Commissioner of Education reviewing the educational work of a number of public museums; but we need in every community a museum to encourage art in industry, in decoration, in dress, in house furniture, in all manufactured goods; teaching the worker to make a beautiful product, but also to show to young and old for pure enjoyment's sake the beautiful in nature and in man's work. Every state should have a central museum whose business it is to loan exhibits to local museums in schools or operated in connection with the schools. England has a remarkable circulating museum system, and even Ireland puts us to shame. America needs to-day a Carnegie of museum benefactions. Chicago, it may be noted, has just secured a new hall devoted to the industrial arts at the Chicago Art Institute, and St. Louis has developed a unique and effective school museum which should be copied widely.

The vocational education movement is therefore proceeding along various lines; such as the adoption of legislation, the coöperation of the labor and employers' organizations, the development of vocational guidance, the increase of special opportunities in agricultural education, commercial education, household arts education, nurses' education, and indeed training which fits for every kind of service.

Members of the teaching profession have, as one of their highest obligations in the next decade, to see to it that this new type of education shall be adequately developed, while at the same time cultural opportunities are not one whit lessened. Thus, in the training of workers of every grade and every calling, there shall be provided an increasing measure of the things that make life worth living as well as the things that make individual work effective and serviceable.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF A PROJECT

By GEORGE D. VON HOFE, JR.

There is nothing new or unusual in the development of a project. We teachers are all planning and working on projects daily, but only a few of us ever dare to allow the pupil to enter into the "secret place" and explore with us the realm of the new and unknown. To select a bundle of grain, separate the chaff from the wheat, grind and pre-digest the kernels, weigh and place the food in a neatly constructed container, all ready for the pupil to carry off,—this has been the false ideal toward which we so earnestly strove in our efforts to play the rôle of educator and distribute to the hungering multitude what we thought to be Truth.

The project is replacing the lesson plan and not unexpectedly, in the light of this era's advance. We hear of the "new freedom" and the spirit of America; what happier manifestation could there be than to break down one barrier which has long stood between the teacher and the taught? Why should the teacher wait until after school hours to cull from every conceivable source facts and ideas about the subject he has in mind, and then present them to the pupil the next day in the form of a ready made, indisputable, and alas! unnourishing lesson plan which the pupil must swallow whole?

A few years ago the alphabet was taught in the first grade as a necessary prerequisite to efficient study of reading. To-day the psychologist tells us that there is a loss in having the child learn his letters in this order,—a form in which he will never use them,—and therefore we substitute words and even sentences for isolated letters of the alphabet. The same is true of science, and the modern teacher of this subject is beginning to substitute science problems which we meet in life for the older science alphabets.

The sixth grade pupils in the Horace Mann School are study-

ing science regardless of every artificial division. The class chooses a project, something that has attracted attention and in which they are vitally interested. The teacher then presents the information to follow not the so-called "logical" development found in text-books, but the trend of thought of the pupils. This presentation is supplemented by popular magazine readings on the part of the pupils.

It has been asked: "How are these projects to be developed?" In several ways. In teaching recently I had occasion to treat of water. Taking the Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature for 1913, 1914, and January-September, 1915, in order to obtain the most recent material, I chose the titles of about twenty magazine articles and noted their references. A few of these were not suitable; a few were at the binder's. The others which are listed below, were used to create questions requiring solution and to meet the demands of the pupils' questions. Two kinds of articles will be found: those suitable for the pupils and those which the teacher must read and interpret for them. With one or two exceptions the references given below are not too difficult for twelve-year-old boys to understand, and are adapted to all pupils beyond that age. A set of about sixty colored lantern slides on "The Wonderful Work of Water," borrowed from the American Museum of Natural History, was also used in connection with this discussion. Besides magazines there are any number of sources of literature from which material can be obtained. Newspapers (some Sunday editions are very good), government bulletins, and advertising literature distributed by many companies, occur to me just now. Anything which helps to dethrone the text-book and replace it with experiences or explanations of experiences likely to be met by the pupil himself is an advance. Then the text will return to its office of reference handbook.

Following are a few suggestive magazine articles:

"Discovering an Underground River." A weird phenomenon that a wandering topographer stumbled upon in northern Michigan. By F. S. Dewey. *Outing*, 63:337-42, December, 1913.

His experience in seeing a twenty-minute ebb and a twenty-minute flood "as if from the great throbbing heart of some gigantic monster down below," an

intermittent geyser, a lake that disappeared and other curious sights, all due to a subterranean river.

"An Overestimated Value." Popular misunderstanding as to the actual capacity, adaptation and worth of water power as compared with steam power. By R. P. Bolton. (Would not interest a young boy.) *Cassier*, 44:69-74, July, 1913.

"Power developed by water-falls is continuously exerted. Very few processes, trades, manufactures or other uses for power are continuous, and in most of them the use of power is confined to a limited period daily. . . . Comparisons and assumptions as to the amount and value of coal or other fuel required to provide power equivalent to the alleged power of water-falls are generally overestimated. . . . Water-power is not the same as electrical power. A horsepower developed by water is not the same as, nor does it produce, a horsepower of electricity. . . . The value of water-power has been excessively overstated, and the effort now being made to influence public opinion toward the expenditure of public funds upon these waters, by exaggerations and suppression of these facts, is misleading the public."

"The Nation's White Coal." *Outlook*, 103:338-9, February 15, 1913.

Short article on the using of water-falls in place of coal. The relation of the Government to the owners of water plants.

"Water Power for the Million." By G. W. Barr. *Independent*, 74:1427-9, June 26, 1913.

The development of water power in the Mississippi Valley. "This Mississippi River water power in the form of electric current is sold at a fraction of the cost of steam power in the section which has the benefit of the cheapest coal in the world. It is compellingly cheaper than any steam power."

"For a Solution of the Water Power Problem." *World's Work*, 26:500-1, September, 1913.

Short article on the granting of franchises for water power sites.

"Pure Drinking Water." The wonderful success of the "Otto" system of water sterilization and purification. By A. C. Lescarboura. (Needs to be interpreted by teacher.) *Cassier*, 44:159-62, September, 1913.

"The largest installation of the Otto purification system is at St. Petersburg, Russia, where the daily volume of water treated exceeds 2,000,000 cubic feet. This is the first municipality to adopt the ozone-purifying system, and for many years the city was absorbed with the problem of utilizing the water of the River Neva, to make it suitable for the use of the inhabitants. . . . The Otto system of water sterilization has been used in smaller installations, such as private homes, hospitals, hotels, schools and other institutions."

"Water." By E. P. Wightman. (Needs to be interpreted by teacher.) *Popular Science Monthly*, 84:218-26, March, 1914.

The condition of water at the formation of the earth; the combination of hydrogen and oxygen; the physical properties of water. Why deserts have no rain. The body, 75 per cent water, requires 5.5 pounds of water a day for sustenance. A list of foods with the percentage of water they contain is given. Well written, popular, few technical terms. A resumé of the physics of water.

"Flood Prevention and Its Relation to the Nation's Food Supply." By J. S. Wall. *Science*, new series, 40:44-7, July 10, 1914.

An argument for the passage of the Newlands Bill in Congress, which provides for the prevention of "the swelling of the rivers and the waste of water during the period of freshets." The condition of the "three hundred million acres of land now idle on the great central plateau of the United States for want of sufficient rainfall" is closely related to the high cost of food. How Colonel Thorpe doubled the annual growth of trees in his forest.

"A Home Geography Lesson for a City School." How the people of a large city are supplied with water. By R. C. Peck. *Elementary School Teacher*, 14:240-1, January, 1914.

Notes on a lesson treating of the water supply in Washington, D. C. Numerous questions are suggested, many of which lead to further thought.

"Capitalizing a Brook." By F. J. Stillman. *St. Nicholas*, 41: 879-83, August, 1914.

A most fascinating story for grown-ups as well as youngsters, telling how a boy installed a turbine on his farm, using a water force of a 90-foot head, and became the miller of the town. The power of water is presented in a way not soon to be forgotten.

"Completing the Ashokan Reservoir." Storing a supply of 500,000,000 gallons per day of mountain water for New York City. *Scientific American*, 111:44-5, July 18, 1914.

Interesting account giving in brief the chief factors of New York City's water supply system: originator, cost, watersheds, reservoirs, spillway, cleaning and re-forestation of land, army of workers.

"New York's Water Supply." *Scientific American*, 111:38, July, 1914.

Editorial account of the need of the new water supply system as a result of the growth of New York City, and the problem New York will have to face a few years hence in the light of the present capacity of the Croton and Catskill watersheds.

"Half a Billion Gallons a Day." By Charles Chadwick, Commissioner of the Water Supply of New York City. *Independent*, 77:124-5, January 26, 1914.

Interesting resumé of the Catskill water works: size, difficulties encountered in its construction, capacity.

"Mammoth Aerator for New York's Water Supply." *Scientific American*, 111:427, November 21, 1914.

Short article, illustrated, on how New York gets air into its water to oxidize some of its impurities.

"Sterilization of Water Supplies for Troops on Active Service." By Woodhead. *Scientific American* supp., 79:292-3, May 8, 1915.

Too detailed an account for the average reader, treating of the testing and sterilizing of water. Suitable for boy particularly interested in testing water.

The use of periodicals is one way of developing a project, but by no means the only, nor necessarily the most profitable way. The method used by the pupil in the active construction of a project needs to be chosen in the light of the subject in hand. Do you ever stop to consider the stacks of good readable books which lie on the shelves of libraries, unused by instructors, mainly because they are not texts? In turning to the back pages of a few books on my desk I find advertisements of the following:

Mars as the Abode of Life
Mars and its Canals
Forms of Water
A History of the Growth of the Steam Engine
Animal Locomotion; with a Dissertation on Aeronautics
The Chemistry of Light and Photography
On the Colors of Flowers
Timber and Some of its Diseases
Photography for Students of Physics and Chemistry
Manufacture of Explosives
Principles of Dyeing

Methods used in the Examination of Milk and Dairy Products. Probably no one has read more than one of these, for books of this character are very numerous; but the quantity is an indication of the demand by adult readers for this kind of material. We can hardly deny the value of such books and their richness in interesting information and explanations.

And then there are the museums, in which one feels the definite value of the exhibitions as he walks from hall to hall. Any number of projects are suggested, and that they are vital is evidenced by the number of people they attract. The American Museum of Natural History has every Sunday about four thousand visitors—the registration of a university. Teachers lagging in the rear fail to see the good teaching the best museums are doing in their purposive method, their presentation of specimens, and their silent tuition in the form of labels giving not only names and classifications, but also detailed accounts of the history, habitat, life, uses and value of specimens, with helpful references to popular books. What a broad and thorough scope of information we could acquire if we applied ourselves as diligently to visiting the museum as we do to poring over texts! We might study mammals, passing from case to case to observe their classification, trace their development and understand their mode of life. Then as questions arise in class we might draw from the library the readable books referred to on the placards. What a rich store, vastly more interesting than we have been used to, this would give us! We might then visit the birds, then reptiles, and gradually cover the entire animal kingdom. Incidentally we should be attracted by the flowers and trees, and spend more time on these. The equality, strength, and use of various sorts of wood would offer a profitable study. Another subject of wide interest is the important agricultural products; how they are grown, to what uses they are put, and how ours compare with those of other countries. Such suggestions multiply spontaneously.

We might study, for instance, the grain and corn and see how it is turned into starch, gluten meal, corn sugar, corn syrup, corn oil, etc.

This method of study in not in advance of the time. Institutions such as the American Museum of Natural History are at present sending to schools numerous collections with descriptive pamphlets and references to readable books.

Daily experience is another vital source. The automobile standing at the school door, the machine at the corner which digs a wagonload of dirt every time it strikes the ground, are of more concern to the pupil than many of the subjects he stu-

died to-day. He has as much liking for the reputable moving picture theatre on the avenue as he has aversion to many of his books. Motion pictures offer much information in the fields of science and industry and when we are told that one-third as much is being spent on moving pictures in the United States as on formal education, this form of culture should not be neglected.

All these are but a few of the sources which the school has too frequently disregarded. The recognition they are receiving from the public is a signal for a re-awakening on the part of the teacher—a call to enlist and do likewise. The project method has been the core of the development and popularity of these activities. Can the school evade this method much longer?

BASING WORK IN INDUSTRIAL ARTS ON THE CONSTRUCTION OF A NEW BUILDING

By KENNETH V. CARMAN
Director, Industrial Arts, Westfield, New Jersey

Introductory. From his work as a student at Teachers College, Mr. Carman came to have abundant faith in a readjustment of school work, giving it a more vital relationship to problems of daily life. In basing the larger portion of a year's work in industrial arts upon the erection of a new high school building, he has given a practical demonstration in the enrichment of school work by deriving its motives from community activities. By centering his own work about the problems of the new building he also raised questions for nearly every other department of the School. Coöperation among teachers came as the most natural thing. Physics, chemistry, mathematics, drawing, geography, English—all came to be, in part, aspects of an important industrial-social activity. By starting with community activities and coming through these to see the identities between the daily problems of life and the school subjects, the missing link in the educative process is supplied. Mr. Carman's successful experiment should stimulate other teachers to similar effort and bring encouragement to them.

FREDERICK G. BONSER, Director of Industrial Arts

Within the last few years there has been a growing recognition of the need for a reorganization of much of our educational matter and method to meet the changed conditions in scientific, social, and political life brought about by the revolution in industry. It is true that the education of the child along cultural lines has been by no means neglected in the past; in fact it has been developed to the *n*th degree; but with the focusing of attention upon this aspect the practical side has necessarily suffered. In former times industries were centered about the home, and the child's "head, heart and hand" were naturally trained along that practical line. With the shifting of the industries from the home to the wider economic and industrial field, such opportunities were in great measure lost to him. "Manual training" has been introduced into the schools, it is true, but the great possibilities of the industrial arts have not been appreciated. Once a child's interest is aroused and he sees some tangible relation between the principles of his school studies and their application to daily life, he will have

some motive for using those principles. If the boy's inductive education is to become practical it is necessary that he become acquainted with many of the typical industries, involving concrete-work, metal- and wood-work, electricity, printing, etc. For example, under the trained hand of such pupils broken bits of furniture in the home will be no longer relegated to the rubbish heap, but may be restored to usefulness. A certain civic pride, too, may be aroused by having the pupils repair broken furniture or construct new articles for the school in which they receive their training. The industrial arts would then become somewhat vocational and, taken in connection with other school subjects, would give the pupils a broader insight into, and keener appreciation of industrial and social life. Since the industrial activities appeal to the child, his interests are aroused by supplying motives in connection with other school studies; and herein lies the great opportunity for the industrial arts department. There has been a cry for more vital relationship between the school and life outside of the school. The practical arts may be made instrumental in vitalizing the curriculum, giving children an opportunity to participate in actual life problems. Such work is not only of real benefit to the town but to the boy it is of practical use also. Its greatest value to him is the development of the altruistic side, for he is doing something for the community in which he lives.

In Westfield, New Jersey, a successful beginning has been made toward broadening the scope of work in the industrial arts department and pointing out one way toward a more pragmatic education. Westfield is a residential suburb within twenty miles of New York City, with a population of a little over eight thousand. There are no industries in the town, therefore the boys do not come in contact with industrial conditions in the larger sense.

In September, 1914, the construction of a new modern high school was begun very near the old building which has been used for the upper grammar grades and the high school. The opportunity was seized upon to acquaint the boys with the many phases of modern building construction, and at the same time to use the new building as a source for practical problems. The industrial arts instructor was appointed inspector of the

new building, a fact which made it possible for the classes to study at first hand the problems of building construction. The school authorities were in favor of using the new $125,000 building for practical problems, and the superintendent, Dr. J. J. Savitz, although on leave of absence during the year, believed that an excellent opportunity was afforded the boys of the school.

The course in industrial arts was compulsory for all boys of the seventh and eighth grades, and elective for the high school boys, who carried it in addition to their regular academic studies. Whenever possible, the teachers of other subjects coöperated with the industrial arts instructor. For example, when certain operations were in process the boys were taken to the new school, and returning to their respective rooms, were required to write for their English instructor a report of observations made. Experience alone could show to what extent the idea might be carried out. In fact, the use of the new building in discovering and working out practical problems offered almost unlimited opportunities. The physics department was enriched and made practical by encouraging the students to find their own problems while observing the many applications of pulleys, inclined planes, ventilating, etc. Arithmetic and algebra problems arose and were discussed in the respective classes, while local soils were studied in connection with geography. From the beginning, an interest which was most gratifying was shown by all the boys. The industrial arts teacher was on hand after school hours and on Saturdays to explain to the boys the different operations going on during the erection of the building, the cornerstone of which was laid October 15.

The industrial arts instructor observed that the boys manifested a curiosity concerning the surveying, excavating, concrete footings, and the work in general, until finally there developed a natural desire to know why certain things were being done. Since the instructor in the capacity of inspector was required to be about the operations most of the time outside of school hours, the boys easily fell into the habit of questioning him about the many phases of the work. This was the opportunity awaited by the teacher,—to direct this interest toward the fullest developing of the pupils. When the boys had mani-

fested a desire to be conducted in a group over the new building, ten were chosen from the physics class to visit the site, under the supervision of the industrial arts instructor. Concrete piers were pointed out, together with the methods of calculating the strength of the piers and the number necessary for this building. The subject of concrete mixing and reinforcing was discussed, the building of forms and the use of beams, girders for heavy reinforcing, and steel bars for ordinary reinforcing. Mr. Merrick, of the Merrick Fireproof Construction Company, gave a talk to the boys on the site of the new school, discussing the problems that confront architects and engineers in designing such a building. Mr. Merrick succeeded in arousing the enthusiasm of the boys and laid the foundation of a keen interest in the work at hand.

During the construction of the concrete footings, piers and walls, the boys wanted to know just what were the ingredients of concrete and the proportion of each ingredient. They were told to investigate and report individually what proportions they thought were used. Most of them brought back the correct mixture; i.e., 1 part of cement, to 2½ parts of sand, to 5 parts of broken stone. They were not yet satisfied, but wanted to know why this proportion was adhered to. It was explained that through experiments and tests it was found that when broken stone is put in a glass jar there will be spaces or voids between the pieces. These voids, in making concrete, must be filled, therefore sand is added until the spaces seem to be filled. Since there are minute voids between the grains of sand, there is poured in to fill these spaces a very fine cement, whose chemical reaction when water is added produces a solid conglomeration. Because of the durability of this mixture (1:2½:5) it is commonly used for solid walls and concrete piers.

The interest of the boys grew so great that they began asking more pertinent questions concerning cement and concrete; so it was decided that the time was ripe for a lecture on this subject. Accordingly, the industrial arts instructor gave to the boys of the eighth grade a detailed account of the history and use of concrete. In the mechanical drawing classes sketches were made of the kiln and ball mills used in the manufacture of commercial Portland cement. Next the English instructor required the

children to write a theme about what they had learned and observed concerning Portland cement.

As theory alone would have stimulated interest merely for the moment, it was decided after the boys had made several observations to give them something practical to do. Numerous pieces of garden furniture were constructed of concrete during the year. These included stucco dog-houses, horse-blocks, flower urns, sun dials, etc., but the stucco dog-house seemed to be the pet idea. The construction of a stucco building, even though it be but a dog-house, will epitomize the builders' labor in calculating the cost of materials and in observing and applying the methods used. Then the boys were told that there were places in the Grant School that could be repaired by them. A number of boys volunteered to go down to do the work. A wheel-barrow was borrowed from the concrete man, and two boys carried bags of cement from the Washington School to the Grant School. The apertures that had never been finished over the stairs were first worked at. The cement and sand were mixed in proper proportions with water. Each boy had a hand in filling the opening and it was finally smoothed off and finished in a good, workmanlike manner. In the same building at another time repairs were made on the third floor where thresholds had not been put in. Materials were carried by the boys on Saturday morning and the concrete mixed in proper proportions and set in place. The boys did excellent work in the matter of repairs. In the basement of one of the older schools the concrete floor showed a number of holes. These places were filled with concrete and smoothed. A large number of such places were mended during the year. No attempt, however, was made to outline a course of study in repairs but such work was sought by and given to boys capable of accomplishing it.

During the fall months many observations such as the ones already mentioned were made. On one occasion the eighth grade boys with their regular geography teacher and the industrial arts teacher visited the site of the new building while concrete footings and piers were being constructed. Quicksand had previously been discovered by borings, which made it necessary to do additional excavating in order to have con-

crete piers rest on solid ground foundation. The boys observed the strata of soils at different levels and this was later associated with their regular geography lessons. Samples of soils were taken from different levels and kept for further study in the class room. In addition to the study of soils, the method of laying out piers, reinforcing of concrete, damp-proofing and blue-printing were explained to the pupils. The intelligence of the questions asked indicated what valuable information these boys were gaining.

While the first floor of the new building was being constructed it was necessary to erect centerings below a temporary wooden floor, over which a reinforced concrete floor was poured. Many pupils saw the metal lathing being laid over this wooden floor, observed the placing of long inverted pans, between which were heavy, reinforcing, corrugated bars with a span of twenty feet from the outer walls to the first row of columns. The boys asked questions about points unknown to them. Accordingly, during the next session of the class, a talk was given by the industrial arts instructor. The history of fireproof construction from the arched brickwork, through the hollow-tile system, to the one used in the building was discussed, and the Merrick system was explained. This historical tracing of the development of any line of work gives to the children an appreciation of their social heritage and a better perspective of that which is studied. Samples of the materials used were brought before the class and discussed. A section drawing was made by all the boys, and compositions were written in the English classes, thus correlating the work with other school subjects. The interest in floor construction led to a desire on the part of some of the boys to construct in full size a section of the floor as it was actually being laid in the new high school. Metal pans, reinforcing bars, metal lathing, etc., were secured from the contractors. The actual making of a section of the floor, together with observations, talks, and drawings, gave the pupils a good insight into the methods of this very important phase of modern building construction. Two of these full-size sections were made.

At the time of the installation of the large Thatcher double boiler, there was again manifested keen interest which offered

a motive for careful study of the heating and ventilating system in the new school, which was easy to follow while the building was being constructed. Two groups of boys, forty-two in all, visited the new high school building with the industrial arts instructor. A representative of the heating and ventilating company explained the system to the pupils. Starting in the boiler room where the new Thatcher steam-boiler had recently been installed, the boys were shown just how this boiler operated: the outlets, return pipes, pressure gauges, the amount of pressure used in testing the boiler (591 lbs.), etc. Then the boys were conducted above where the unit system of heating and ventilating was explained. The grills in the wall were pointed out and the method of drawing fresh air into the room and the system of eliminating foul air were explained. The boys were shown blue prints and given some fundamental information before leaving their class-room, and notes were taken during the observations from which English themes were to be written. Many questions pertaining to other phases of the building construction were asked by the boys, and definitely answered on the site of the new building by the practical contractor who was well acquainted with his line of work. It was noted that such visits by the boys seemed to have a democratic influence, giving them some appreciation of the laborers' work. It was thus possible to have the children gain a more intelligent attitude toward labor in general.

One aim of the instructor was to encourage the boys to inspect and report as far as possible the activities going on in the new building. While the regular industrial arts classes were working in the shop with wood and concrete, a copy of the specifications was given one boy who read clauses pertaining to the work which was at that time going forward. He became familiar with what was specified, so that he could observe and report intelligently the materials, mixtures, etc., that were being used.

As the instructor was unable to check up the work in progress while in charge of a class, a boy acted in his place as inspector. For example, concrete was being poured for the basement walls, and the pupil, after studying the portions specified by the architect, checked up and reported just how much

sand, cement and stone were being used. It was explained to each boy that the reason for watching the mixture was not so much that the contractor had a disposition to cheat, but rather that the workmen might be careless about proper proportions, since they did not have as great an interest in the building as did the owner. This inspection in checking was carried on throughout the entire process of construction, so that many different boys became acquainted with the actual carry-in out of plans and specifications. The boys also reported the number of men at work on each contract.

Other instances where the boys participated in the affairs of the new building occurred. The engineers of the Corrugated Bar Company requested a sample of the concrete being used, to keep for testing, and a boy was asked to take care of this work. A box was made, 6″ x 6″ x 6″, and a sample of the concrete was obtained and kept in the industrial arts room to set. A sample of the concrete mixture for each section was taken and put away after being properly labeled. The architect found it necessary to examine and test one of these samples, some doubt having arisen as to the strength of a certain section of the floor. The industrial arts classes examined the freshly poured concrete at the time when it was taken from the mixture. At another time the architect advised taking temperature readings three times a day for protection in case of disputes. This work was entrusted to a seventh grade boy, and his daily report was verified by the industrial arts teacher. This boy became very enthusiastic in making the temperature readings. His parents also expressed their appreciation of an opportunity to bring children in touch with something useful as well as interesting.

The engineers of the new building, after examining slag stone on the grounds, thought it necessary in order to insure safe floors to test slag which was used as an aggregate in the concrete mixture. A box was made and a sample of slag was packed and with proper data shipped by parcel post to New York for examination. Three boys were engaged in the different stages of this transaction and being told of the reasons for testing ingredients for concrete work, they gained some profit in doing something practical in connection with the new building. The slag, on being examined, was found to contain a

small quantity of sulphur, which made it unfit for fireproofing floors. Samples of slag stone were also used in chemistry classes in the high school, the instructor explaining where slag came from and why it sometimes contained sulphur.

When the floors in the new building were tested, a talk was given to both eighth grade classes on the methods employed in applying loads and measuring deflection of floors. The pupils wrote compositions of their observations for the English classes. Equally interesting was a visit for the purpose of studying drainage. The instructor with a group of high school students started in the basement, observing concrete columns, ceilings, floor construction and other points, as well as drainage. In the study of corridor construction, the difference between the construction of floors was indicated, and the immediate difficulties met by the workmen in the case of the drainage system were shown.

The inspector being in close touch with the different contractors persuaded them from time to time to give talks to groups of boys explaining different processes while the work was in progress. The mason contractor, a man of many years' practical experience in the building trade, discussed plans with the pupils, and showed them how to calculate the number of bricks necessary for a certain job, amount of mortar required, scaffolding, methods of laying brick, labor, etc. The important matter of calculating for bids from plans and specifications was outlined in so simple a way that the boys got a clear understanding of the many phases of brick contracting. The Merrick Fireproof Construction Company had the contract for all the concrete and steel work in the new building, and Mr. Merrick was induced to come to the Washington School and talk to the boys from his wide experience in the field of engineering. He related some very interesting incidents to show what conditions a boy would meet after leaving school, and answered many eager questions. This plan of bringing into the school men of unusual experience, engaged in activities of practical life, proved especially gratifying. They are almost always willing to help the school by telling of their work, and through the medium of these men the school is associated with real social activities in their broadest sense. As has previously been said, Westfield

is a town where practically no industrial work is carried on, and as a result the children meet few labor conditions. The new building afforded some material at first hand in the study of labor and capital. On coming from school one day the pupils noticed all the workmen standing idle outside of the building at a time when they were usually at work. Formerly the word "strike" had for them no definite meaning, but they now learned that all union men had been "called off" the job by a walking delegate, because the steamfitter was not a union contractor. Through conversation with the laborers the boys learned that they did not want to stop work. Here was a difficulty which even the boys felt to be unusual. Why could one man order many others to "quit work" against their wish, and delay the progress of the building, causing general inconvenience? Here was a phase of an important and interesting subject. What were the meaning and the purpose of a labor organization? The boys showed by asking questions that they had the intelligence to learn something about unions, strikes, labor, and other important factors in our modern social life. The architect called a meeting of all the contractors with the walking delegate of the union, for the purpose of adjusting matters; and the proceedings of this meeting being explained to the boys, they followed the strike with a better understanding.

Whatever the future of the child may be, he will profit by an understanding of how men band together for a common good, and how each individual has a part in social organization. These matters may be explained very simply, associating the larger phases of life with the child's own activities. After becoming familiar with the various operations the instructor noticed that the boys asked many questions about the "business end" of erecting the building; such as, "How and where is the money raised before beginning work?" "Why was this certain site selected?" etc. This interest manifested by the boys was directed toward some very valuable ends. They began to feel that people must work together to bring about a common good, such as a school house, and they got something out of the idea that men to-day work together as a unit to accomplish big things. As a result of this interest shown by the children, there was a talk on the history of the new school,

setting forth what had to be accomplished before such a building could be erected. The children's thoughts were directed toward a form of social service and civic interest exemplified by the men who worked for the community. Practical arithmetic and modern business methods were employed in the bonding, awarding of contracts, etc. As the work of utilizing the new building as a source for practical problems progressed, it became apparent that a very large number of typical experiences in some form were to be had in connection with the project, and various problems arising were made the subject of practical class instruction by different teachers. When a six ton steel girder was being raised by means of pulleys and gear wheels, one boy in the watching high school group was quick to notice that here was a good practical problem for the physics class. Taking the necessary data for figuring the amount of power required to raise this steel girder they found out how many men were needed to do it. Drawings were made showing pulleys and the number of teeth in the gearing, and the problem was worked out enthusiastically in class. Many other applications of pulleys and gearing were made use of when girders were being raised.

Another problem, that of the inclined plane, naturally emerged after a group of boys had observed men wheeling loads of concrete up an incline, to be poured for the basement walls. Practical application of this common phase of physics, the mechanical advantage of the inclined plane, helped to vitalize the work and to make the boys generally observant of out-of-school application of their studies.

Some of the boys started a discussion as to why laborers always kept the handles of their wheelbarrows as low as possible. One boy tentatively applied his knowledge of fulcrums and stated that the weight would be less as the handles were raised. Several experimented to see if this theory of fulcrums held, and soon discovered that it did not fit, for when the handles were held low, less force was required to push the weight. They deduced from this that less friction exists when the force is parallel to the motion.

Electrical wiring and power were next studied. The boys observed the laying of conduits for wires and followed all phases

of the electrical work about the new building. Their observations were applied by doing electrical repair work in the basement of the old school. One high school boy was so interested that he made a drawing of the wiring system for electricity in the new building. He observed the actual work being done, along with his study of specifications. This boy intends to take up electrical engineering after leaving school, so that a study of plans of wiring specifications, observation, and practical work should be of valuable assistance to him.

During a talk by the concrete and steel contractor the question was asked by the boys why reinforcing bars were always laid at the bottom of a concrete beam, as in the floor construction. The contractor explained by breaking a piece of wood and showing that the break occurred directly beneath the place where the pressure was exerted. This illustrated that a beam must be strongest at the base, since it is here that the greatest tension comes. The boys by this time had begun to think in a scientific way and to appreciate reasons underlying certain processes. At another time it was noted that the cast iron columns used were not encased in concrete as were the steel columns and girders. The reasons for allowing cast iron to be exposed to fire were not understood until the question was referred to the chemistry classes. It was found that cast iron does not warp and twist when heated, as does steel. Twisting of columns of course would be dangerous in the greater part of a building. The use of cast iron for stoves was referred to as a common example of the employment of this form of iron where heat is present.

The tracing of the sources of all materials used in the new building afforded an exceptionally interesting problem to the classes in geography. A list of these sources and materials was typewritten by the students. General questions relative to geographical study were added, such as, What railroads were employed in conveying materials? What were the freight charges? Was there a reason for manufacturing a certain commodity in a certain place? and general information concerning railroads. For example, the steel sash was shipped from Detroit, Michigan. Detroit was located on the map and traced by railroads to Westfield, New Jersey. The railroads employed

were investigated, the cost of freight ascertained. It was like playing a game with informational value. This project was carried on in the commercial geography classes in the high school with marked success and interest, the teacher in charge taking a great deal of interest in elaborating upon suggestions furnished by the industrial arts instructor. In the grammar school the sources were ascertained but the work was made more simple. This one problem alone could have furnished an almost unlimited opportunity for correlation.

Many problems involving arithmetic necessarily came up in connection with the new building. Owing to some apprehension on the part of the architect and engineers as to the ultimate strength of the first floor construction, it was thought best to increase the amount of concrete used in the second and third floors. A calculation of the per cent and weight of concrete required made interesting problems for the arithmetic class. This percentage of increase had to be figured by the architect and was a practical problem that meant much to him and to the contractor. The informational side was also valuable and interesting, involving a study of the system of floor construction used in the new building. At another time the arithmetic class figured from measurements how much concrete would be necessary for the thirteen-foot concrete wall which was in process of construction. The area of the irregular lot of land on which the new building was erected was also computed by the class.

The main entrance stairs seemed to those that studied them to be too steep. It was suggested that the treads be made wider, leaving the risers as originally planned. It was decided to widen each tread one inch. This addition would involve an extra cost to the owner. One member of the Board of Education asked to have the children figure out how much extra concrete would be necessary to improve the steps and what would be the cost of undertaking the work. The original steps were measured and it was found that a little over two cubic yards of concrete would have to be added. The usual price of extra concrete work was seven dollars a cubic yard, but the children, after investigating, discovered that the labor in "cribbing," or the making of wooden forms, would justify

more than fifteen dollars for the "extra." Here the important question of labor came in, for it required skilled labor to erect forms for the concrete. The contractor asked fifty dollars for the "extra," and although some thought the price a little too high, it served to show the children that materials play but a small part in figuring jobs, the labor being the important feature in most cases.

Some mention has already been made of what was accomplished in the English department. Practically all important phases of the building problem were used by the English teachers, who heartily coöperated with the industrial arts teacher throughout the entire work. In the study of cement and concrete, where the children became interested in the history, manufacture, and uses of cement and concrete, their observations were carried into the English classes. Themes were written on floor construction, with a study of the history of this phase of building.

In the commercial department a great deal of work was done. The inspector for the Board of Education, who was also the industrial arts teacher, made out a daily report of the progress on the new building. These reports were taken by the typewriting classes each day. A number of copies were made and sent to the Board of Education and the architect, while copies were also kept on file in the school office. The students were thus able to follow daily the interesting development of the work. Practically all of the business correspondence of the building operations went through the hands of the high school students. One feature of the typewriting class, involving no little labor, was the getting out of a number of copies of specifications bound in book form and containing eighty-three sheets. Copies were presented to the Board of Education and others associated with the work.

Since the industrial arts teacher also had charge of the mechanical drawing it became possible to take many problems directly from the new building. There were two classes in mechanical drawing in high school, two in the eighth grade, and one class in the evening school. Practically all sections of the building were drawn to scale by the boys from measurements made on the site. Some of the work involved the study-

ing and copying of architect's plans. The boys observed the parts of construction that they were drawing, thus motivating their work and making it practical. Their technique was especially good. It was found that better work and a more vital interest can be had when problems are made thus tangible. The drawings made included elevations, plans of the basement, the first, second and third floors, and the roof. Detailed sections of the stairs, entrances, and balconies were drawn from the engineer's standpoint by the use of careful studies made while the sections were being constructed.

It will thus be seen that the administrative officers of the school had in mind certain aims and values in all the studies made in connection with the new school building. The children were actively interested in the whole project. To direct these interests to worthy ends was the problem of the school. In studying the history of each activity the pupil's mind was directed toward an appreciation of what men had to do in order to develop certain social ideals. The children went home and interested their parents in what they were observing and writing. This work tends towards a closer relationship of home, school, and civic interests.

There is not always a new school building to be erected to which one may turn for practical problems, but in many communities there are manufacturing establishments of one kind or another which can be visited and used to vitalize school work. Another association of the school with technical pursuits would be similar observation and study of any new dwelling or other building near the school. Other opportunities will present themselves to those who believe that such work is of real value.

Every community has agencies which should become helpful in bringing about a closer relation between the school and real life problems, in order to give a broader social and industrial meaning to the schools. The industrial arts teacher might profitably get in touch with live agencies in the community, such as the chamber of commerce, the board of trade, selectmen or city council, town engineers and other town or city departments; manufacturers, merchants, and the press.

The plants and processes of local industries can be studied

by visits under the supervision of the instructor of industrial arts, after which pupils may make practical applications in the shop by constructing even a simple article which would involve the use of their observations. This will tend to give to the children an appreciation and a sympathetic understanding of various occupations. Mathematics and natural science could be enriched by having the pupils use problems emerging from these studies of the industries.

It is important that the superintendent or principal in charge should believe in such work and arrange with the other teachers to meet the industrial arts instructor in coöperation and correlation of studies. Problems arising from industrial occupations may then be offered by pupils themselves in the regular classes.

The responsibility of finding problems, however, naturally rests with the industrial arts instructor who, because of his knowledge of technical occupations, may secure the coöperation of those engaged in industrial pursuits and work with the other teachers to vitalize the subject matter of the curriculum and find concrete problems.

A knowledge of industrial conditions and processes should come through the children's observation and activities which would, in turn, strengthen and motivate school subjects.

The work in Westfield, though experimental, has proved its value, and we hope it may be the means of aiding other school communities. Professor John Dewey says, in his "Schools of To-Morrow": "But we must remember that we are dealing with a problem of readjustment, not of original creation. It will take a long time to complete the readjustment which will be brought about gradually. The main thing now is to get started and to start in the right direction. Hence the great importance of the various experimental steps which have already been taken."

A COURSE IN COSTUME DESIGN

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A costume design course may be taught in two ways, depending upon its use in the future work of the student; that is, the emphasis may be placed on representation or upon design. Generally speaking the first method of approach is necessary in the training of an illustrator; the second in that of a designer or dressmaker.

Practically the same preparation is required for the course whether its aim is to teach illustration or design. The student should be familiar with the principles of design as presented in classes of art structure and with costumes of all periods from early Egyptian to the present day, as outlined in any course in historic costume.

The subsequent training of the student, however, should differ. For the illustrator the costume design course should be followed by other similar ones to perfect technique in the use of pencil, pen, ink, crayon, and water color. For the education of the designer or dressmaker there must be opportunity for continuing the work by designing and draping in materials in order to test the suitability of the design and to add to the problem of line and color that of texture, which plays so important a part in the success of the finished product.

Let us say then that while the aim of all costume design courses is practically the same,—that of teaching the general principles of design as applied to costume,—if it is arranged for dressmaking students it must be a class in design rather than in illustration and any emphasis laid on the technique of design is only such as is necessary in teaching the student to represent her ideas in an attractive way. Not infrequently during the

course, however, unexpected talent in representation is discovered, and the intended costume designer becomes the fashion illustrator.

For general method the teaching of a course in costume design may be said not to differ materially from that followed in an English course. In English, before any effort at composition is required, the student is brought into contact with the best in literature to illustrate certain principles and to stimulate the imagination. In design it is the same. As Mr. Arthur W. Dow has said, "Contact with the best works of art is an essential part of art education, for from them comes power and the stimulus to create." Consequently before undertaking each new problem, the student is shown the best examples in art which it is possible to secure to illustrate the principle presented.

The first part of a costume design course is devoted to training the student in appreciation of good lines and spacing, dark and light, color, etc. Many carefully chosen illustrations are presented which show good design in costume. By discussion and a thorough analysis of the value of these designs as illustrating certain principles a foundation or background is formed to guide the student in her subsequent choice of designs and to stimulate her imagination when original work is attempted.

Historic costumes form the major part of the illustrative material used. These may be found in books on historic costume and as well in reproductions of fine old paintings and sculptures. Greek costumes of the classic period, which have served as an inspiration to designers of all periods, have chiefly come down to us in the photographs and reproductions of the work of the Greek sculptors. Interesting illustrations are also frequently found in the current fashion magazines. These are usually the photographs of people rather than the fashion sketches. The latter, showing as they do the fashion artist's interpretation of the costume, are too frequently affected by an eccentric style or method of representation to be generally useful.

Following this study of design, which may be considered as a kind of exercise in training the eye and mind, even as scales on the piano train the fingers, the student is asked to do "original" work. "Original" work does not mean the creation of something entirely new. There is nothing new: every conceivable

kind of design seems already to have been suggested. It means rather a new presentation of an old idea—an adaptation of the old to suit the demands of the present, an interpretation of the "feeling" of the historic costume into something which is the student's own.

While this work is being done the current fashion magazines are banished as they offer too many solutions of the problem for those whose imagination has not been stirred by the previous exercises. Historic costume books and prints are again used and in addition there are many books such as the "Arabian Nights" illustrated by Dulac, "In Powder and Crinoline" and "East of the Sun, West of the Moon" illustrated by Kay Nielsen which are invaluable and frequently easier to procure than some books on historic costumes. Aside from the stimulus to the imagination, they also give many practical and interesting suggestions for the costumes, which are good in line and color.

A study of color is made through dyeing. The object of the work in dyeing is twofold. It aims to give the student a thorough knowledge of the theory of color and at the same time to provide her with what Lady Duff Gordon has called a "little color box" for future use. Three colors are used in the dyes: red, yellow and blue. From these the students mix the different hues in different degrees of value and intensity. An inexpensive and rather lustrous silk is very satisfactory for this work. When the dyeing is finished each student has from seventy-five to one hundred samples to use in studying color.

Much the same method is then followed as in studying design. Examples of fine color, as shown in historic textiles and in prints such as the Japanese prints, are assembled and studied to train in appreciation. From these examples combinations are made in the samples by matching colors. This exercise is completed by the making of original color schemes, taking the motives from nature, from books or from any source which the student finds suggestive. Much training is required in this work before the average student is able to get away from the usual combinations.

Texture, which is closely allied to color in material, is considered last. Again the same method is used. Different tex-

tures are shown by the use of photographs and actual fabrics. Of the latter there should be a large collection as the fabrics themselves give a more direct message to the student than any other medium. The collection should include as great a variety of surface finishes as possible.

Based on this study, combinations are made by the student. Many find it difficult to separate color from texture, and combinations are made, which, upon analysis, are found to be based on color rather than on texture.

In planning a course in costume design it is generally necessary to have it stand as a complete unit in itself because of the impossibility of governing in the majority of cases the prerequisites and parallels taken by the students. No matter what the exact method of presentation may be the underlying thought or motive of such a course is to teach appreciation and based on that, discrimination. It is in short, to train the taste of the student. The present standards in dress cannot be raised nor the constantly changing and frequently undesirable fashions be controlled except by training the taste of our future teachers and designers.

COLLEGE NEWS AND DEPARTMENTAL NOTES

TRUSTEES

At the meeting of the trustees of Teachers College held April 7, Mrs. Willard D. Straight was elected a trustee of the College.

Dr. Frederick G. Bonser, associate professor of industrial education, was promoted to a full professorship of education and given charge of the courses concerned with the elementary school curriculum. This promotion provides for the work left vacant by Professor Hillegas who recently resigned to accept the commissionership of education of the State of Vermont. Professor Bonser's courses will be arranged to provide for the needs of superintendents and principals of schools, normal school teachers, and school supervisors. Special attention will be given to the needs of supervisors of vocational and rural schools. Professor Bonser will continue his course on the teaching of industrial arts, but other courses of his department will be assigned to professors to be appointed later.

Mr. J. Montgomery Gambrill, instructor in history, was promoted to an assistant professorship with a seat in the faculty of practical arts.

Special provision was made for rural education by the appointment of Dr. Warren H. Wilson as advisor to students in this field. The advanced course on the rural school curriculum will be given by Professor Bonser. Miss Marie Lovsnes was appointed an instructor to assist Professor Bonser and Dr. Wilson. Arrangements were also made to have short courses in rural education given by Professor Edwin L. Holton of the Kansas Agricultural College and Professor Guy M. Wilson of the Iowa State Agricultural College. Provision will be made later for the work in rural school administration.

LORAM'S DISSERTATION ON THE EDUCATION OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIVE

Mr. Charles Templeton Loram of Durban, Natal, South Africa, has recently completed an important dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy on the education of the South African native. Born in Maritzburg, Natal, Mr. Loram received his B.A. degree with honors from Maritzburg College in 1900. He attended Kings College, Cambridge, 1901-1906, receiving his M.A. degree in the last year from that university, and a teaching certificate from Cambridge Training College. From October, 1914 to December, 1915 Mr. Loram was at Teachers College, completing his requirements for the doctorate last February. Mr. Loram has now returned to South Africa where he is assistant inspector of schools. The following is a summary of his dissertation.

The question of the relationship of black and white in British South Africa is probably the most difficult current question in racial sociology. In other parts of the globe, in India, in Egypt, and in many of the European colonies in Africa, we find a handful of white men ruling vast masses of blacks, but in these countries there is no thought of white settlement. The white man is there as an official to rule the country for the native, to maintain peace and order so that the black may enjoy the benefit of settled government, and the white man may carry on his trade. It is only in the southern states of North America, where the two races exist side by side as co-inhabitants and citizens, that we have a problem at all comparable with that of British South Africa, and there the presence of a vastly preponderating white population in the central and northern states and in Canada precludes any possibility of a struggle for race supremacy. How difficult it has been to find a basis for race adjustment even in a country where the whites outnumber the blacks in the proportion of nine to one, the history of the southern states since 1863 can tell. How much more difficult must that question be in a country where a million and a quarter Europeans and four and a half million natives have made their permanent homes.

It was in 1652 that the colonization of the Cape Colony by

the Dutch first began. At that time the inhabitants of the Cape were the Hottentots and Bushmen, two comparatively feeble races, who were easily subdued by the hardy and more intelligent Europeans. When the Dutch, however, began to extend eastwards and northwards they came into contact along the banks of the Kei, and north of the Vaal rivers, with the Bantu, a virile and warlike people, who for several centuries past had been slowly migrating down from Central Africa. Abantu or "the people" is the proud generic name which the several negro tribes, the Zulus, the Amaxosa, the Basutos and the Bechuanas, to name but a few, gave themselves. From the first there was race conflict. For a long time the issue was in doubt. For many years the eastern frontier line was the scene of border raids, skirmishes and long protracted wars, but in the end the superior intelligence and military training of the European triumphed, and the native settled down more or less willingly as the white man's vassal.

The treatment afforded to the native has varied in different parts of South Africa. In the Cape the natives have been more liberally dealt with than in any other part of the sub-continent. There, restrictive legislation has been reduced to a minimum, the parliamentary franchise has been granted to a limited number of natives, and in the extensive native territories a very successful form of local self-government has been established. On the other hand, the late Transvaal Republic included in its Grondwet or constitution a clause to the effect that equality between European and native would not be tolerated. This differential treatment existed throughout the Colonial Period, and to this day no definite and uniform policy of native administration has been evolved by the governing Europeans. Since 1910, however, when native affairs became a matter for the Union Government, renewed interest has been evoked, and the present study is an attempt to establish the thesis that the solution of the native question lies in the conscious education of the natives in the light of their history, institutions, environment, mental and moral make-up, and probable social, political, and economic future.

From the first coming of the white man two powerful educating influences have been at work among the blacks, the indirect

and unconscious education arising from mere race contact, and the conscious and purposeful education given by the white missionaries. Of the former it may be said that it has been on the whole deleterious. The native is highly imitative, and those aspects of European civilization which he has picked up from contact with the white on the farm, at the country store, in the towns, and on the mines, have been its least worthy features. So bad, indeed, have been the effects of this education on the natives that Johannesburg, the great mining centre, which employs over one hundred and twenty thousand natives, has been dubbed a "Criminal University," while the famous South African Native Affairs Commission of 1903-05 states that "it must apparently be accepted as an axiom that contact with what we are accustomed to regard as civilization has a demoralizing tendency in its first effect upon primitive races." This harmful education increases year by year, and to those in South Africa who, contrasting the apparently idyllic life of the respectful "raw" native with that of the swaggering self-assertive and often immoral "educated Kafir," ask repeatedly, "Why educate the native?" We would reply, "We cannot help educating the native by our mere and inevitable contact with him."

The other educative force operating on the natives of South Africa is the European missionary. One of the avowed objects of the Dutch colonization of South Africa was the evangelization of the heathen, and the first school to be established in South Africa was for the slave children from the West Coast. No finer record of heroism can be found than the history of missionary enterprise in South Africa. The success which has attended the efforts of the missionaries has been remarkable. The fifty-eight societies in the country operate from over five thousand stations, conduct over three thousand schools and have over a million and a quarter native Christian adherents. The altruistic nature of their attitude contrasted with the selfish attitude of the average lay European has induced the natives to divide the Europeans into two classes, viz., white men and missionaries. That the missionaries have made mistakes in their educational policy they themselves would be the first to admit, but it is due entirely to the efforts of the missionary that the native has received any conscious education at all.

The attitude of the colonial governments towards native education has been one of *laissez faire*. While they have been very zealous in establishing state schools for the education of the European children, they have been content to leave the education of the million and a quarter non-European children of school age for the most part to the missionaries. In return for the totally inadequate grants-in-aid of native education they have required the observance of more or less strict regulations and adherence to unsuitable Europeanized courses of study. Native education has not received its fair share of financial support, for, comparing the amounts contributed in taxation and expended on education, we find that while each European contributes in taxes twenty times as much as each native he receives fifty times as much financial support for the education of his children.

The courses of study prescribed and enforced by the Departments are not suitable for natives. In the largest province, the Cape, there is the same curriculum for European and native, and the same education is offered to the son of a raw savage as is given to the son of a cabinet minister. In the other provinces separate courses of study for native schools are prescribed, but these are merely modified forms of the European syllabuses and have not been based on the psychology of the people and their immediate and future needs.

The writer has made an attempt to compare the mentality of the natives with that of Europeans by the application to both groups of certain standardized mental tests. The results show that the native is distinctly inferior to the European in quickness, accuracy, memory, and reasoning. Indeed, the only test in which the natives were superior was in cancellation. The general inferiority, however, is not so great as has been believed, and there is unmistakable evidence that with an improved environment and better teaching the difference will be still further reduced. No special race characteristics appear in the results, though it is the writer's opinion that marked emotional differences exist between the two races. No evidence in support of the theory of arrested development at and after puberty as a peculiar characteristic of the natives is found. While these facts would appear to argue for an easier form of

the European curriculum as being suitable for the natives, this is not the case, for even if the European curriculum were above reproach, the present needs and future destiny of the two races are very dissimilar.

For a long time to come at any rate the European will admit of no social or political equality. In their own interests and in the interests of the country the majority of the natives must be manual workers. The openings for professional and clerical employment are few, but as privates in the ranks of industry, and as self-supporting agriculturists they can be of direct and valuable service. Education for the native should therefore have an industrial bias, and industrial education must include farming, which is the most suitable vocation for the native both because it is the hereditary occupation of his race and because he can follow that industry without competing with the European. However much one may disapprove of the white man's attitude to restrict the native largely to manual occupations, it must be accepted as a fact, and provision made accordingly in the scheme of education.

The practice of agriculture postulates an equitable system of land tenure. The communism of the natives is giving way to the individualism of the Europeans. Individual ownership of land with a form of local self-government and direct local taxation for education is recommended. To effect this, the form of semi-segregation existing in Basutoland and the Transkeian Territories should be extended to other parts of the country.

Native education must for the present remain in the hands of the missionaries. Government support both in increased financial aid and in less restrictive regulations is needed. A separate government department for the administration of native education should be established. The present system of inspection should become more a matter of supervision than of examination. A special corps of native supervisors who are qualified on the industrial side should be enrolled. The missionaries and the teachers in native schools should be consulted in the preparation of courses of study and in the examination of teachers.

Finally, the "talented few" of the native people should

receive the best education of which they are capable at an inter-state native college with theological, academic, teacher-training, commercial, and industrial sides. No obstacles should be placed in the way of any native who is capable of benefiting by higher education. Such natives should rather be encouraged since they are to be the leaders of their people, and in and through their efforts lies the best hope for the solution of the native problem.

ALEXANDER'S DISSERTATION ON THE GERMAN VOLKSCHULE

Mr. Thomas Alexander, who finished his requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in October, 1915, has prepared an interesting dissertation on the German *Volkschule*. Mr. Alexander received his A.B. degree in 1910 from Columbia. He then attended Roberts College, Constantinople, and spent 1913 studying elementary education in the German schools, aided by a foreign grant. Later Mr. Alexander was instructor in elementary education in Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn. His dissertation is based on material gathered in Germany, a summary of which follows.

The German school system comprises roughly three types of schools. They are the *Volkschulen*, the middle schools and the higher schools. The *Volkschulen* are for the children of the lower classes and cover the years from six to fourteen. The middle schools are for the lower middle classes and educate the children for the period between six and fifteen. The higher schools take the children at nine years of age and carry them, to the age of eighteen, through a nine-years' course. This last type of school is for the higher classes of society and prepares for the universities. The different types of schools are parallel to one another, and social rank determines which a child shall attend.

The *Volkschule* is the school under discussion here. Students of elementary German schools often err in their judgment of this type of school because they do not understand its relationship to the whole educational machinery. The *Volkschule* is only one of the many parts which make up the educational system.

Each part, whether it be the elementary school system, the higher school system, the universities, the normal schools, the technical schools, or the continuation schools, performs a very definite function in the educational work which the state requires to be done.

During the nineteenth century the leaders of Germany decided that Germany should assume leadership in this world in every line of endeavor, particularly in commerce and world power. They set this as the very definite goal of their national ambition. The next question was how that aim could be accomplished. It was to be done through education. Accordingly, school systems were organized with this aim in view. In a state such as the Germans proposed building there were to be leaders and followers. The followers were to be trained for a docile, efficient, German citizenship,—that is, the lower classes were to be made into God-fearing, patriotic, economically independent Germans. This was the task of the *Volkschule*, and it has been wonderfully accomplished. This type of German is created to do the manual labor of the state.

The leaders were to be trained in the middle and higher schools and in the universities. There were to be different grades of leaders: leaders in the lower walks of life, leaders in the middle walks of life, and leaders of the nation. The higher schools and universities were employed to produce these types of leaders. From the time of beginning in the higher schools at the age of nine until the university courses are finished, barriers are placed in the way of advancement of those who would become leaders. Those who, at the age of fifteen, fall at the first barrier, i.e., the one-year volunteer examination, or who leave school then are destined to become leaders of the lower order. Those who fall before the barrier of the leaving examination of the higher schools become leaders of somewhat higher rank. In the universities the restraint of the higher schools is withdrawn, and the students are given absolute freedom. Those who can survive this test of character have opened to themselves the way to become the leaders in national affairs; those who cannot survive must accept lower positions.

There are, then, leaders and followers. The leaders think and do: the followers merely do. The schools are organized

for the express purpose of producing just these types. It is precisely because these facts are true, that we in the United States cannot take over the German system or any of its parts without radical changes. The Germans educate the individual for the state; we make the state for the individual.

The lesson to learn here is this. The Germans set definitely their national aims. Those in authority shaped every resource to reach that goal. The schools were moulded to meet the needs of the state. We in America should formulate very definitely a goal in keeping with the democratic principles at which we are aiming, and shape our educational policies toward that end. Unless we take the situation in hand and prepare our citizenship to meet shocks from without, our country is almost sure to meet with grave disaster.

Any conclusions as to the efficiency of the German schools must be drawn with due regard to the purpose which the schools are intended to subserve. We must judge the achievements of the German elementary schools from the standpoint of the German citizen, for what may be highly inefficient for us may be of the greatest efficiency for him. The school that can turn out a good, hard-working, industrially efficient, law-abiding German, content to plod along in his unchanging groove, must be considered excellent in Germany, but would be open to the severest criticism, if it were established in America. That of which we disapprove is usually condemnable only from our own standpoint, although it may be highly praiseworthy when judged from the German point of view.

The first great aim of German elementary education is the production of an efficient German citizen. An efficient German citizen is one who is God-fearing, who is economically independent, and who is ready and willing to take his place in that part of the social order to which he belongs. This comes to mean that the *Volkschule* must furnish that *general* education which is necessary to all citizens and which is the basis of subsequent occupational training. This latter training is usually cared for by the *Fachschulen*, or special schools; in this case the continuation and trade schools.

The second aim of German elementary education is an unconscious one, but nevertheless unavoidably present. We in-

terpret it as the felt need of producing in large numbers a type of citizenship easily amenable to the dictates of bureaucratic officialdom. This under-class is composed of the peasants, small tradesmen, subordinate officials, artisans, and other laboring classes, together comprising fully ninety per cent of the total population.

Chief among the avowed aims of the *Volkschule* is the formation of moral and religious character. There is no doubt that the reason religion is made one of the chief subjects of instruction in the elementary schools is to teach the lesson of obedience to authority, which is the basis of the German state.

The reader should interpret the preceding statements in the light of the aims of the elementary school which we have just stated. In no other way can a variety of practices current in the German *Volkschule* be justified.

The educational system of Germany has developed from the higher forms of education downward. Also, as a corollary, schools for the upper classes of society developed long before general institutions of learning were established for the common people. The *Volkschule* has been evolved for the most part since the middle of the eighteenth century, in a period contemporaneous with the universal democratic movement in all European institutions. The *Volkschule* is not, however, in Germany, the product of a desire felt by the masses for general culture and training or for the foundations of occupational education. The elementary schools have been given to the people by rulers who saw that the strength of government lay in a body of subjects trained to carry out the will of the state. Perhaps it would be clearer to say that the elementary school system of Germany was created by the government for the people. The people themselves did not demand it. Nevertheless, the school system is now a thing which the government can no longer take away from the governed. A partial explanation of the lack of sympathy between the home and the school lies in the fact that the school is not of and from the people. Though this is not the only cause for this lack of sympathy, it is, however, the historical factor in bringing about the situation of which we speak. Because over-centralization of administration and the paternalistic attitude of the government in educational

matters have largely produced a vast chasm between the home and school in Germany, our American states should be on guard against these errors. The school can be a living social factor only in so far as it is of and from the people and the product of their own activity.

The methods, the *How* of the German schools, are perhaps the source of the greatest value to us. How they teach is much more important than what they teach, although the latter subject is of great value. We refer to no particular device or set of devices, or modes of procedure in any subject. That Germany, by her methods as employed in the *Volkschulen*, *can* make seventy million think and act as one man, is the most significant educational fact and at the same time theory which Germany can teach us to-day. This is the main thesis of our argument. We believe the stenographic lessons and the discussion of the methods of teaching prove that it is the teaching methods employed in the *Volkschulen* which have wrought this miracle within a hundred years. The important lesson of the German schools is that a nation can be unified in thought and action by means of education, more particularly by instruction. The great masses have been moulded and cast in one die,—they think alike, they act alike. What they think and what they do is determined by the leaders of the nation. This is achieved by the *Volkschulen*.

At this point the selection of subject matter in the various subjects in the elementary school plays an important rôle. In two subjects, history and religion, is found the key to the whole situation. The courses of study in these subjects are so selected that a certain mental attitude and mind content are afforded the lower classes which, when finally fixed in the consciousness of the people, means devotion to the Emperor, and self-abnegation and subordination to the state. Those portions of the Bible are chosen which have most to do with obedience to the Heavenly Father and His representatives on earth, which are in this case the princes of Hohenzollern. The course in history, and, indeed, in every other subject, is chosen very largely from a patriotic, national *German* point of view. So much for the *what* of the schools.

By an inordinate amount of *memorization* of the selected

facts, by constant *drill* on the achievements and power of the German nation, by "line upon line, and precept upon precept" for eight years, and then by service in the army, the youthful mind is Germanized, is set like adamant and is capable of no change. The work of the *Volkschule* is accomplished, for the masses think alike and respond as a man to the slightest suggestion from authority.

It is with no empty bribe that the common people of Germany are thus led into spiritual captivity. Each citizen is educated for an occupation, his home is secure from attack, his children are in good schools, he is protected from disease and famine; he is insured against accident and unemployment; old age has no terrors. Why should a man not sacrifice himself for the state to obtain such privileges? To a man who has never lived in a state of free opportunity of self-betterment, to a man who cannot miss what he has never known, life cannot hold much more than the paternalistic government of Germany affords.

Methods of instruction in the various subjects, particularly in history, religion, science, and arithmetic, hold many valuable lessons for teachers in the American elementary schools. The important question is, however, can we increase our national efficiency by content of curricula and methods of instruction in the lower schools? Of course it cannot be done in the same way as it is done in Germany, because this is a republic and our conception of the individual and his rights is not the same as in Germany.

To achieve the fullness of our national possibilities we, as Germany has already done, must set definitely the goal of national aims. We must know the end of our efforts. Then we must mould our means and methods to obtain that which we have fully resolved upon. Germany has shown us what can be done in a comparatively short time with a definite aim and definite methods. The methods which Germany has used would not be applicable here for they lead in exactly the opposite direction from that in which we are endeavoring to go.

And the necessity of action is upon us, necessity from without, and necessity from within. The education of patriotic, self-sacrificing, capable citizens is the only thing which can

solve the problems which are near at hand. Indefiniteness and lack of purpose mean loss of leadership in every field of endeavor. The golden dream of being the favored of God will end in a horrible nightmare unless the youth of America is taught how to know the meaning of true liberty, of the exercise of the rights of citizenship, of the value of industry, of courage and of character.

The methods and aims of the *Volkschule* are well illustrated by the following stenographic report of an actual lesson in geography given to boys of the third class (fifth year).

GEOGRAPHY—III CLASS (FIFTH YEAR) BOYS

TEACHER: Where do you live?
PUPIL: We live in Europe.
T: What is your Fatherland?
P: Germany is my Fatherland.
T: All together. Germany is our Fatherland.
PUPILS: Germany is our Fatherland.
T: Who is our *Landesvater?* (father of the country)
P: Emperor William II is the father of our country.
T: Why is he called *Landesvater?*
P: Because he rules the German fatherland.
T: No.
P: Because he cares for the land and its people as if he were the father.
T: Yes. He cares for the land as a father cares for his children, whence comes the name. What is the emperor called? All together.
PUPILS: The emperor is called *Landesvater.*
T: Germany is shut in by many other lands. What country is to the west?
P: France.
T: We shall hear something about this country to-day. What country are we to hear about to-day?
P: We shall hear about France to-day.
T: Once more.
ANOTHER PUPIL: We shall hear about France to-day.
T: All together.
PUPILS: We shall hear about France to-day.
T: What is the name of this country? (*Teacher has written the name on the board.*)
P: France.
T: Who has ever heard of it? (*Several hands are raised.*) What have you heard?
P: It is a republic.
T: All together. France is a republic.
PUPILS: France is a republic.

T: What is a republic?
P: A republic has no king, only a ruler.
T: Not exactly.
P: France is not ruled by a king, but by a president.
T: Who is the ruler of Germany?
P: The *kaiser* is the ruler of Germany.
T: And after his death who shall be ruler?
P: The crown prince.
T: And how is it in a republic?
P: The president is elected by the people as often as they wish.
T: Yes, in a republic the president is elected for some four or five years and he may be elected more than once. He rules only for a certain number of years. How long does a king rule?
P: A king rules for life.
T: What are the boundaries of France? (*Pointing at the map.*)
P: The Bay of Biscay and the Pyrenees and———
T: The west boundaries of France are the Atlantic Ocean, and the Bay of Biscay; on the south the Pyrenees and the Mediterranean Sea, on the east the Alps, the Jura, and Germany; and the northern boundaries are Belgium and the English Channel. Give the boundaries of France. (A pupil pointed at the boundaries while another pupil recited.)
P: The western boundaries are the Atlantic Ocean and the Bay of Biscay; the southern boundaries are the Pyrenees and the Mediterranean Sea; the eastern boundaries are the Alps, the Jura and Germany; on the north are Belgium and the English Channel.
T: Now let us consider the east boundaries of France more closely. They are the Alps, the Swiss Jura, and the *Argonnen Wald*. All together. The eastern———
PUPILS: The eastern boundaries are the Alps, the Swiss Jura, and the *Argonnen Wald*.
T: Now one pupil alone give the boundaries on the east.
P: The eastern boundaries of France are the Alps, the Swiss Jura, and the *Argonnen Wald*.
T: Now give me all the boundaries of France.
P: The western boundaries of France are the Atlantic Ocean and the Bay of Biscay; the southern are the Pyrenees and the Mediterranean Sea; the eastern boundaries are the Alps, the Swiss Jura, and *Argonnen Wald*, and Belgium and the English Channel on the north.
T: What you told me of France was not very much. Can anyone give me the name of a ruler of France?
P: Napoleon I.
P: Napoleon III.
T: What wars did Napoleon I wage?
P: The wars against Prussia one hundred years ago.
T: What wars did Napoleon III conduct?
P: The Franco-Prussian War in 1871.
T: Have the French and Germans gotten along well together?

P: No, they have had many wars with one another.

T: Yes. Now we must study and find out more about this country, because we may have trouble in the future with them (!). The chief rivers of France are the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, the Maas, the Mosel, and the Seine. Repeat that.

P: The chief rivers of France are the Loire, the Rhone, the———

T: Garonne.

P: ———the Garonne, and the———

T: Seine (*giving it the French pronunciation*).

P: ———the Seine, the Maas, and the Mosel.

T: All together. (*Pointing at the rivers.*)

PUPILS: The chief rivers of France are the Rhone, the Loire, the Garonne, the Seine, the Maas, and the Mosel.

T: What mountains are here in the south of France?

P: The Pyrenees.

T: On the east of France are the Alps, the Jura, the Argonnes, the Sevennes. The Sevennes stretch up as far as the Mosel. Repeat that.

P: The mountains in eastern France are the Alps, the Swiss Jura, the Argonnes, and the Sevennes.

T: Repeat that once more. These mountains in here are the Vosges.

PUPILS: The mountains in eastern France are the Alps, the Swiss Jura, the Argonnes, the Vosges, and the Sevennes.

T: Where are the lowlands of France? (*No reply.*) The lowland plain of France reaches from the Pyrenees to Belgium. Repeat that.

P: The lowland plain of France reaches from the Pyrenees to Belgium.

T: Repeat that again.

P: The lowland plain of France reaches from the Pyrenees to Belgium.

T: There is another lowland plain (valley) along the Rhone.

The song "Deutschland, Deutschland, über alles" was then sung, presumably because the boys were getting a little sleepy.

T: What is our fatherland?

P: Germany is our fatherland.

T: Who is our kaiser?

P: William II is our kaiser.

T: What can we call him?

P: We call him the *Landesvater*.

T: What country are we studying to-day?

P: We are studying France.

T: What border of Germany is France?

P: France is the western border of Germany.

T: What is the capital of France?

P: Paris is the capital of France.

T: What is the best train for Paris? (*No reply.*) The best train for Paris passes through Hanover, Cologne, and Brussels. Repeat that.

P: The best train for Paris runs from Berlin through Hanover, Cologne, and Brussels. (*It was repeated again.*)

T: The best water route from Berlin to Paris is down the Elbe to Hamburg,

then through the North Sea and English Channel to Havre and then by rail to Paris. Or one may go by way of Bologne instead of Havre. Give me the boundaries of France.

P: The boundaries of France on the west are the Atlantic Ocean and the Bay of Biscay; the southern boundaries are the Mediterranean Sea and the Pyrenees; the eastern boundaries are the Alps, the Swiss Jura, the *Argonnen Wald;* Belgium and the English Channel are the northern boundaries.

T: Give me the chief rivers of France.

P: The chief rivers of France are the Rhone, the Garonne, the Loire, the Seine, the Maas, and the Mosel.

T: Repeat that again. (*Calling another pupil.*)

P: The chief rivers of France are the Rhone, the Garonne, the Loire, the Seine, the Maas, and the Mosel.

T: What are the chief mountains of France?

P: The mountains of France are the Alps, the Jura, the Vosges, the Argonnes, and the Sevennes. (*Repeated by another pupil.*)

T: Give me the lowlands of France.

P: The chief lowland of France reaches from the Pyrenees to Belgium. The other plain is along the Rhone.

T: If we take a look at the general shape of France, what form do we find it to have?

P: It is a quadrilateral.

T: Yes, there are two peninsulas. Normandy. Say that.

PUPILS: Normandy.

T: And Brittany. Pronounce that.

PUPILS: Brittany.

T: These peninsulas used to reach out and join England to the continent, but the North Sea broke through. What was the result?

P: England was then an island.

T: What lands used to be joined?

P: England and France used to be joined.

T: What divided these countries?

P: The North Sea broke through and separated them by the English Channel.

T: What body of water separates England and France?

P: The English Channel (*Armel Kanal*).

T: Why is it called the *Armel Kanal?*

P: Because it has the shape of a coat-sleeve.

T: The narrowest part of the channel is at Dover—Dover Straits. Where is the narrowest part of the channel?

P: The narrowest part of the Channel is called the Straits of Dover.

T: What are the chief peninsulas of France?

P: The chief peninsulas of France are Brittany and Normandy.

T: What have we talked about to-day?

P: We have talked about France.

T: What was the name of the early inhabitants of France?

P: The Franks.

T: Who was their king?

P: His name was Charles the Great.

T: Give me the boundaries of France.

P: The boundaries of France are the Atlantic Ocean and the Bay of Biscay on the west; the Pyrenees, the Mediterranean and the Gulf of Lyons are the southern boundaries; and France is bounded on the east by the Alps, the Swiss Jura, and Argonnes, the Vosges; and on the north by Belgium and the English Channel.

T: Name the chief rivers of France.

P: The chief rivers of France are the Rhone, the Garonne, the Loire, the Seine, the Maas, and the Mosel.

T: Give the names of the mountains in France.

P: The Alps, the Jura, the Vosges, the Argonnes, and the Sevennes.

T: Where do we find the Sevennes?

P: The Sevennes extend from the Pyrenees to the Mosel.

T: Where are the lowland plains of France?

P: The great lowland plain of France is in the western part of the country and extends from the Pyrenees to Belgium.

T: Give the names of the chief peninsulas of France.

P: The chief peninsulas of France are Brittany and Normandy.

T: Repeat that together.

PUPILS: The chief peninsulas of France are Brittany and Normandy.

T: Why is the channel called the *Armel* Channel?

P: It is called the *Armel Kanal* because it has the shape of a sleeve.

T: What did we study about before vacation?

P: We studied about the Balkan countries

T: What are the Balkan countries? (*Pointing at the map.*)

P: The Balkan states are Turkey, Bulgaria, Roumania, Servia, Bosnia, Montenegro, Albania, Hezorgovina, and Greece.

T: Repeat that, someone else. (*It was repeated again.*)

T: Who is the new prince of Albania?

P: Prince William of Wied.

T: Yes, he is a German prince. What is the capital of Albania?

P: The capital of Albania is Durrazzo.

T: What is the capital of Turkey?

P: Constantinople.

T: Give me the route by train from Berlin to Constantinople.

P: The train passes through Dresden, Prague, Vienna, Belgrade, Sophia, Adrianople, and Constantinople, and the name of the train is the Oriental Express.

T: How do you go to Constantinople by water?

P: One may go to Trieste by train and then by boat through the Adriatic Sea, the Aegean Sea, and Dardanelles, the Sea of Marmora, and then the Bosphorus.

T: What other water route is there?

P: One may start from Hamburg, down the Elbe, through the North Sea, the English Channel, the Atlantic Ocean, the Straits of Gibraltar, the Mediterranean Sea, the Aegean Sea, the Dardanelles, the Sea of Marmora, and the Bosphorus.

T: Tell me what you know of Constantinople.

P: The churches have no bells and instead of a spire they have minarets. They are called mosques.
T: How are the faithful called to prayer?
P: A priest calls the people from the minaret.
T: Constantinople lies on the water. What is the meaning of that?
P: It is a great commercial city.
T: Yes, its harbor is one of the best in the world. What is the capital of Greece?
P: Athens is the capital of Greece.
T: What is the seaport of Athens?
P: It is Piraeus.
T: Who is the Queen of Greece? (*No answer.*) She is the sister of our emperor.
(*The lesson ended at this point.*)

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

The class work of the practicum in educational administration has this semester been based very largely upon a survey of the school systems of Nassau County, Long Island. About thirty-five members of the class have been engaged in the field work on this survey, which has included studies of the classification and progress of pupils, of the achievements of pupils in handwriting, spelling, English composition, arithmetic, language, and reading, of buildings and equipment, of costs and accounting, of special classes and activities, of the organization and administration of the schools, of the teachers, and of the courses of study. This survey has been made possible by the Nassau County Association, and is under the general direction of the New York State Department of Education. Other members of the practicum have been doing equally important and practical work in the Montclair, New Jersey, school system, under Superintendent Bliss.

FOODS AND COOKERY

During the winter Miss Barrows made a 10,000-mile trip through the West, attending conferences and giving talks and demonstrations. Everywhere that she went, through Oregon, Washington, California, Utah, Idaho, Arizona and Mississippi she was greeted with great cordiality. The varied programs of the conferences showed the great interest of the West in household arts and home economics, and not a few of our alumnae who are teaching all over the country came to greet

Miss Barrows at different points in her exceedingly enjoyable and instructive trip. She was particularly impressed by one item of knowledge furnished by a California high school girl: "A calorie is the unit of value to raise one pound of protein to one centigrade of fuel, or one grain of heat"! Let us hope she was not taught by a Teachers College graduate.

The growing activity of the Foods and Cookery Department has resulted in the much needed addition of another room for demonstration. Class room 214 in the Household Arts Building has been converted into a dining room for informal functions. The furniture, originally in use in the apartment on the fifth floor, has been considerably supplemented; the blackboards covered with drapery to match the tone of the walls, and chintz and scrim curtains hung at the windows. The general effect of the mahogany table, chairs, sideboard, and tea-wagon combines with the pink and gray draperies to make a very attractive and homelike place. Since its transition at mid-year this room has been constantly in use in addition to the more formal Tudor dining room. The home cookery and table service, institutional cookery and the catering classes have all asked the patronage of members of the Teachers College staff, who have eagerly responded, engaging the dining rooms for over thirty functions, i.e., afternoon teas, receptions, buffet suppers, luncheons, and dinners. A great deal of practical work of a very useful nature has thus been given into the hands of the students and the use of large quantities of food material in the cooking laboratories has been made possible. Opportunity has also been given to study table decorations through the use of a large variety of cut flowers and plants.

Those of the staff who have been fortunate enough to be served at these functions have high praise for the deft white-gowned students in their service about the perfectly appointed tables as well as for the delicious food offered.

HOUSEHOLD ARTS

During February, March and April a very interesting series of evening lectures was offered to those interested in the teaching of household arts in vocational schools. The lecturers were

Mrs. Mary Schenck Woolman, formerly director of the Manhattan Trade School for Girls and professor of domestic art in Teachers College; Miss Cleo Murtland, director of woman's work in the Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education; Miss Mary Allinson, Miss Nellie Smith and others. From the staff of Teachers College, Professors Kinne, Cooley, Fales, Gunther and Miss Wilmot also spoke. The lectures were grouped in three main divisions; the first dealing with general vocational problems, the second with the teaching of sewing and dress-making, and the third with foods and cookery.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Field Day is an annual event in Teachers College. As all the students in the four undergraduate classes may compete, it has come to be the most vital feature of the Athletic Association. Teachers College Field Day is unique inasmuch as the events introduced differ widely from the usual college field day list of events. The throwing of the discus and javelin as well as the lariat are both interesting and popular, as is also the contest in dance, in which the even-year classes compete against the odd. This year, group contests were added, which permitted a larger number to take part. All who desired could enter, the score each one made being recorded as the numerator of a fraction whose denominator was the number participating in the group. Reducing this fraction gave the average of the group. Each class having its own group, the average for the continuous baseball throw and the continuous broad jump was recorded in this way. It proved a very satisfactory method, and permitted nearly two hundred students to participate in the events. The winner of the entire competition was the class of 1919.

A life-saving demonstration in the Thompson Gymnasium pool by the seniors was the culmination of their year's course in swimming. The theory and practice of teaching swimming run throughout the year, and at the end every member of the class has to swim with clothes and shoes on, and undress in the water. Mr. Holm decided that this year life saving with clothes on should be added to the final test. Early in the winter the seniors undertook to raise money for the Athletic

Association, and impersonated the Sniggles Family in a series of episodes. At the suggestion of Miss Alma Booth, this family gave a life saving demonstration also, dressed in their stage costumes. Baby fell overboard and Mother Sniggles, bonnet and all, dived for her. Another daughter dived after mother, and bringing her to shore applied the old fashioned Sylvester method of resuscitation, but to no avail until another Sniggles produced a large bicycle pump which, combined with the proper Schafer method of laying the patient on her stomach had the desired effect. Then the entire family dived and undressed under water. The final examination in swimming is thus most practical and effective, while that at mid-year is a written test on the various strokes and the general technic of swimming.

Baseball played scientifically is another development of the department. For three years there has been a series of games between Teachers College and Barnard in the spring. This year three games were played, Teachers College winning the first, Barnard the second and Teachers College beating Barnard badly in the third. Under the able coaching of Dr. Williams the girls play exceedingly well—better, he claims, than a good many of the men—and Teachers College has won the series every year. It remains to be seen what can be done without Dr. Williams, who has undertaken work in another field, and against Barnard with the impetus given to athletics generally by its new gymnasium equipment.

Pan's Anniversary or the Shepherds' Holiday, a Masque by Ben Jonson, was held in the gymnasium on April 27, all students of the physical education department participating. The seniors undertook to give the masque as a piece of practical work, and with the proceeds purchased the large new background curtain which will be useful for many future gymnasium events. The power of nature's forces as opposed to the skill derived from formal mechanical drill was the theme of the masque enacted before the king, queen and courtiers (freshmen and sophomores). The warriors were impersonated by juniors and the masquers by seniors; the wood and water nymphs by both classes. Rachel Schwab was very acceptable as the shepherd and Louise Evarts as the fencer. The three effective priests of Pan were Gladys Cook, Nell Baker and Frances

Curtis, and the three delightful dancing nymphs were Dorothy Lloyd, Mary O'Donnell and Muriel Rogers. The pantomime was contributed by Madame Alberti's pantomime class, while the costuming and music were prepared by the girls and the dancing was originated in the department.

RURAL EDUCATION

The progressive rural educational leaders of this country recognize the fact that professional preparation for educational leadership in the country should be of as high quality as that of the educational leaders of the city. City educational leaders have for years taken advantage of the work offered in supervision, administration, and teaching of special subjects by Teachers College; and each year the number of rural educational leaders and community workers who have come to the College has increased. In view of this fact courses in rural education have been offered.

Since the rural problems are largely social, rural sociology has had a prominent place in this special work. County superintendents, district supervisors, instructors in normal schools, teachers in model schools, rural training teachers, heads of educational bureaus, managers of extension work, state and national workers in the corn and tomato club movement, public health nurses and overseers of districts, superintendents of churches and clergymen interested in the country church have been among the students during the past two years.

The first course in rural education was offered in Teachers College in the summer session of 1912 by Professor Bonser. Thirty students were registered. In 1912-13 Professor Bonser organized a series of lectures in rural life problems open to all students who were interested Social Problems of Rural Life were treated by Dr. Warren H. Wilson, superintendent of the department of church and country life of the Presbyterian Board of Home Missions; Rural Sanitation and Health by Dr. C. E. A. Winslow, curator of public health, American Museum of Natural History; Rural Education by Professor E. C. Branson, professor of rural economics and sociology of the State Normal School, Athens, Ga., and Miss Mabel Carney, head

of the department of rural education, Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Ill. From seventy-five to one hundred students attended each of these lectures.

In the summer session of 1913 Professor Ernest Burnham, head of the rural school department of the Michigan State Normal School at Kalamazoo, gave two courses in rural education, one on the Organization, Administration and Supervision of Rural Schools, the other on the Rural School Curriculum. During the summer session of 1914 Dr. Wilson offered two courses in rural sociology. In 1914-15 Professor Bonser and Dr. Wilson offered the courses in rural education and rural sociology.

In the summer session of 1915 courses were given by Dr. Wilson, Professor Dodge, Miss Carney, Commissioner Finegan, Miss Spohr, and Miss Gowans.

During 1915-16 Professor Dodge has given two courses in rural education and Dr. Wilson two courses in rural sociology. Professor Dodge has brought into his course in the rural school curriculum other Teachers College professors who have each given several lectures. Professor Hillegas gave a series of lectures on rural supervision, Dr. Wood on rural health and sanitation, Professor Bonser on industrial arts in the rural schools, and Miss Spohr on household arts in rural schools. Mr. Eaton has offered a course in the teaching of agriculture. The department of agriculture of Columbia University has offered other courses that are open to Teachers College students.

The rural education department does not plan to offer so many special courses in rural education that there will be little time for a student to take the work offered in philosophy, psychology, elementary education, supervision, administration, secondary education, practical arts and other departments. The work in these departments is most essential to good rural life leadership and should occupy a large part of the students' time.

During the summer session of 1916 Dr. Wilson will offer two courses in rural sociology and Dr. Harold Foght of the U. S. Bureau of Education will give two courses in rural education. Miss Spohr will give a course in household arts and Miss Gowans a course in the teaching of agriculture.

In 1916-17 Professor Bonser and Miss Lovsnes will give a

course in rural school curriculum, Professor Wilson in rural sociology, Dr. Trabue and Miss Lovsnes in rural school administration and supervision and Miss Spohr in household arts. The following rural leaders have been secured to give unit courses:

A. C. Monahan, U. S. Department of Education; Miss Mabel Carney, state supervisor of high school normal training departments in Minnesota; Professor John Phelan of the State Agricultural College at Amherst, Mass.; Mr. W. K. Tate of Peabody College; Dr. Arthur D. Dean, chief of division of vocational education, State Department of Education of New York; Professor Edwin Holton of the Kansas State Agricultural College; Miss Jessie Field, national secretary of the Young Women's Christian Association.

Mr. Abbot L. Combes, instructor in industrial arts in the Horace Mann Schools, will offer one unit course in Rural Mechanics.

Dr. Wood of Teachers College will give a course in rural hygiene and sanitation and Dr. Bigelow's course in nature-study for elementary schools will be open to rural education students.

The Rural Club, which is a student organization, will have an opportunity to secure prominent lecturers for its meetings throughout the year.

As a means of training in the scientific understanding of country life, advanced students will be sent into country communities not more than one hundred miles from the city to make social and educational surveys, the findings in which will be used as a basis for class and seminar discussion. Opportunity will also be given for active work in farmers' clubs and similar organizations.

As a result of the organization of full college courses majors in rural education have been established leading to diplomas as follows: (1) Supervisor of rural schools; (2) teacher of rural education in schools for the training of teachers.

The general purpose of this group of courses is to satisfy the needs of the students who come to Teachers College in order to fit themselves for leadership of country people, in educational, religious, economic or sanitarian service. The

principle underlying all this work is the same, namely, that the whole community is to be served by the worker in any institution. It is expressed, or hinted at, in the saying credited to Florence Nightingale, "Successfully to nurse the patient the nurse must care for the family as well." By this principle we believe that the rural school falls heir to the experience of workers in the popular arousal of the farmer, which takes the form of institutes, boys' and girls' clubs, and all phases of extension service. These will not hit their mark, nor attain maturity, until their essence is made available by trained supervisors in the work of the school in the rural community. To make this material, American and European, available for the worker locally employed in supervision, not only of the school but of other institutions of country people, is the purpose, of these courses.

DR. WILLIAMS GOES TO UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI

In September Dr. Jesse Feiring Williams will sever his connection with the physical education department of Teachers College and will become professor and director of hygiene and physical education at the University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Dr. Williams was born in Kenton, Ohio, and attended the public school there, graduating from the Kenton high school in 1904. He received his A.B. from Oberlin in 1909 and remained there as a tutor the following year. After graduating from the Chautauqua School of Physical Education in 1907, he became an instructor of physical training in the New York Institute for the Blind. He left that position to become an instructor in the physical education department of Teachers College. In 1913 he was made an assistant professor in the department, and in 1915 received his M.D. from the College of Physicians and Surgeons, Columbia University. The office which he will now hold has been newly created and he will assume the responsibility of building up the department.

WOMEN'S DISCUSSION CLUB

The luncheon meetings of the Women's Discussion Club have proved very successful. Unfortunately lack of space prevents more than the mention of the recent speakers and their interesting topics. Dr. Warren H. Wilson spoke on Rural Education, Dr. McMurry on Women in Supervision, Dr. Cubberley on the Church in Rural Districts, Dr. Hillegas on Women as Supervisors, Dr. Bonser on Industrial Arts in the Grades, and Dr. Dewey on Private and Parochial Schools in a Democracy. At the evening meeting on May 11, to which men as well as women were invited, Dr. Kilpatrick's subject was The Lessons of the War for America. Our self-consciousness, he said, is being awakened by the spectacle of the awful efficiency which Prussia is exhibiting, and we begin to think of what we are and whither tending. Individualism in the old sense of every man for himself has broken down, and a new regulated democracy must take its place, not dominated by force, which is the method of the military power, nor by an oligarchy governing a subordinated group which obeys from habit, but a democracy persuaded that the regulations which it conspicuously imposes on itself are just and right and determined to live by them until changing conditions require new adaptations for greater efficiency.

Members of the Women's Discussion Club were delightfully entertained at tea by Professor and Mrs. Bonser in the Tudor dining room on Wednesday, April 12.

DEATH OF SUSAN E. BLOW

Miss Susan E. Blow, one of the pioneers in kindergarten education in America, died on the 26th of March in New York City at the Berkeley Hotel, where she had lived for several winters.

Miss Blow was born in St. Louis in 1843, and was a brilliant representative of one of the oldest and best known families of the South. Her interest in the kindergarten began in 1872 when she came to New York to visit one of the first kindergartens opened in this country. This kindergarten was directed by Miss Maria Boelte, a young woman who had studied with

Frau Froebel in Germany, traveling later to England where she coöperated with Charles Dickens and other celebrities of the day in introducing the kindergarten into England. Miss Blow, then a young woman, persuaded Miss Boelte (later Madam Kraus-Boelte) to prepare her to introduce the kindergarten into the schools of her native city. A year later she returned to St. Louis and gave her services to the city in training both children and teachers in the new education, in coöperation with Dr. William T. Harris, who was at that time superintendent of schools. A lifelong friendship grew up between these two educators, who were bound together by a common interest in the idealistic philosophy of Germany, of which Froebel was the educational exponent.

Miss Blow was the undisputed leader in the whole field of kindergarten education until about 1890 to 1895, when a radical school of kindergarten arose which gradually broke away from the strictly Froebelian school, of which she remained the most brilliant representative and leader up to the time of her death.

In 1904 and 1905 Miss Blow was associated with Teachers College, serving two years as a lecturer to the classes in kindergarten supervision. She then withdrew from Teachers College, concentrating more and more on her duties in giving instruction to the teachers of the New York Free Kindergarten Association.

Miss Blow's best known books were her translation of the songs and commentaries of Froebel's "Mother Plays," "Symbolic Education," "Letters to Mothers," and "Educational Issues in the Kindergarten." Her last writing was a report on the theory and practice of the conservative wing of the kindergarten, written for the Committee of Nineteen of the International Kindergarten Union, which was published with a report on the radical point of view, drawn up by Miss Patty S. Hill, director of kindergarten education, Teachers College.

ALUMNI ACTIVITIES

ALUMNI CONFERENCES

Administration Section

At the alumni conference of the department of administration, on February 18-19, Mr. William E. Stark, superintendent of schools, Hackensack, N. J., presided. Mr. Angelo Patri, principal of Public School No. 45, New York City, gave an address on the Larger Use of the School, as follows:

The mere wording of the topic suggests that the community has not as profitable a use of its school as it should have. It has not this larger use because the school was not built for the community but was built to do the specific work of teaching the essential facts of the curriculum. Therefore the school has become a cloistered thing in which the teacher plays the main part. The teacher made the curriculum, the text-books, the grading, the building, the discipline, the supervision, the measurements, and the teacher trained the future teacher to follow the school path.

We are just beginning to wake up to the fact that the school is a cloistered thing, that it is apart from life, that it is a teacher-made world, that it is dogmatic, selfish, undemocratic, wasteful. We are forced to the conclusion that the school does not believe in children, nor in teachers, nor in parents.

The school system herds children fifty and sixty to a class; puts the poorest paid and poorest trained teachers in charge of the youngest children who are most in need; reserves the best teachers for positions that are farthest from the children; builds one school exactly like another without reference to local problems; establishes a uniform curriculum, and that, a book curriculum for all schools.

The school system keeps the parents out of its life; disrupts the home by unconsciously setting up a clean collar standard

as against a work standard, fails to utilize the parents to make the environment of the child a moral place to grow in.

The school system oppresses the teachers with its A-B-C-D ratings and boss standards; promotes them largely on book knowledge and not with respect to the needs of the job; punishes them for being ill.

The school building is isolated, the class is isolated, the teacher is isolated, the pupil is isolated. In a field where coöperation, ease, noise, mistakes, should be the rule, we find isolation, silence, fear.

We are demanding a larger use of the school plant but we still cling to our old notions of what a school should do. There are schools that are used from 9 to 3 for the regular work, from 3 to 5 for recreation, from 7 to 11 for lectures, night school, parents' meetings and neighborhood centers. Sometimes they are used on Saturdays and occasionally on Sundays. But the mere use of the school plant all the time does not mean larger use, because each of these activities conducted under a separate head and acting independently may cause a spirit of isolation. Instead of making the school the means of larger community life through more intensive use of the school plant we continue to make the school the means of keeping alive group helplessness, social prejudices. The school does the same job with the extra activities that it did with the children and with somewhat similar results.

We have reached the point where we realize that the life of the school, the child's life in the school should change. We have reached the point where we recognize that the child's life out of school is as important to his growth as his life in school. We have controlled the life in the school and made a mess of it. We have not controlled the life out of school because we were helpless. We have not fully directed the life of the neighborhood through the greater physical use of the plant because we did not know how to make that life self directing. So that life out of school would become the school continued.

Some of the things we need to do may be summarized thus:

1. Map out the city in terms of social problems and build and locate schools so as to utilize for the education of children

and adults whatever is rich in the experiences and traditions of the specific groups.

2. Put the neighborhood problem up to each school unit, making the principal the most important member of the school system. Place all activities under his charge, night school, lectures, parents' meetings, concerts, day school, etc. Then let the system be at the service of the individual school and not let the individual school be at the mercy of the system. Allow each school a maximum of growth.

3. Let the school for children be such that the children can play, work, study, where discipline is not a matter of inaction but a matter of mistakes, movement, experimenting, growing.

4. Train the teachers differently, so that they can really come to know the children and the people and to believe in both. Then put the best teachers in charge of the most helpless, the young. The present practice must be reversed if we really believe the school is the agent of democracy.

5. Let the school come out of its four walls and get into physical contact with the neighborhood. The school through the child must go out to the neighborhood individually and collectively so that the world may see it at work. Make the child's needs the moving factor not only in what the school does during regular school hours but in what the school does out of school hours. Let the unconscious philosophy of child life become the conscious philosophy of adult life.

The mere use of the school plant physically is not enough. We must use the school plant physically because we have a fundamental belief that its use will give the child a better world to grow in. Unless that is done the work with adults will be purposeless. The school does not go into these extra adult activities to uplift the adult but the school does this so that the adult himself becomes the school. We should add to Dewey's "The school is the home writ large," the equally true statement, "The home is the school writ large."

At the dinner of the department, held on Friday evening, Dr. E. P. Cubberley, professor of education at Leland Stanford Jr. University, spoke of the activities of Teachers College, and their importance in the field of education.

Elementary Education Section

The meeting of the elementary education group was held in Milbank Chapel on Saturday, February 19, at 9.30 a. m. From the point of numbers present and enthusiastic interest on the part of the audience this may well be counted one of the most successful meetings that the alumni of Teachers College have ever held. To Dr. Lida B. Earhart much credit is due both for her work on the committee arranging the program and also for her delightful leadership at the meeting.

The outline of a paper on Class Responsibility during the Recitation by Mr. Elmer A. Hotchkiss follows:

1. The present tendency of educators is to set up standards for judging the quality of class-room instruction and to formulate scales or tests for measuring the mental ability of children.

2. Up to the present time, the above efforts have not reached the class-room teacher in a way that is affecting to any considerable extent her class-room instruction. The aim of the average class-room instructor is still to transfer knowledge from the pages of a book, where it now is, to the mind of the child, where it ought to be. Teachers too often fail to realize that knowledge does not consist of facts but that it is the product of thinking, and that before anyone can master and use it, he must make it part of himself by thinking it. Therefore, the problem that would naturally most concern a teacher should be, how to cause her pupils "to think." In other words, to bring about such a situation that the pupils will "learn how to study."

3. In a recent investigation made among two hundred high school teachers, it was the consensus of opinion that if the elementary teachers would work with the above aim constantly in mind and so organize their material and handle their classes as to reach their aim, most of the criticism that is now laid at the door of the elementary teacher would pass away.

4. The last and main point I wish to make is with reference to the application of the McMurry standards to class-room instruction. What shall supervisors say to teachers that will help them to organize and handle their classes and select and present school material in such a way as constantly to provide for the application of one or more of these standards,—moti-

vation, initiative, organization of subject matter and its application?

The Use of Text Books and References was treated by Miss Alice M. Paine, who described actual proceedings in class rooms from grades four to seven in several schools and made suggestions for leading children to do independent thinking by the use of text-books and supplementary material.

Mrs. Harriet Strong Wilson talked on the Use of the Library, saying in part:

Since the library has come to hold an increasingly large place in the scheme of education, and since librarians concur in the opinion that the majority of older students are generally dependent upon the librarian for direction, it becomes incumbent upon us to make definite provision for developing independence in the use of the library before pupils enter high school. Librarians attribute the helplessness of students to their lack of library training. Can we not remedy this defect in large measure by teaching in the grades the use of indexes, tables of contents, dictionaries and encyclopedias? In brief, can we not give our young people the opportunity to master the machinery of the library, since such mastery makes possible more efficient self-direction? Another valuable means is making the study hour approximate the work of the library. The value of a class library becomes most apparent here. With indexes and reference books at hand, a definite topic assigned may be hunted down.

The Relation of Initiative to Results was the subject under which Miss Mary H. Lewis gave some results of her unique experiment at the Park School in Buffalo.

Dr. Kilpatrick and Mr. Henry C. Pearson closed the meeting with brief emphasis on the important conclusions reached as to the use and limitations in "Initiative in the Elementary Schools."

A committee was elected to take charge of the Elementary Education Section at the next Alumni Conference in February, 1917. Miss Bessie Lee Gambrill of Teachers College was elected chairman, with Miss Mary Peabody of Horace Mann School, Miss Jessie Lowson of Teachers College, and Dr. George Meyers of Teachers College as her associates on the committee.

Kindergarten Section

Two meetings of Kindergarten Education were held in connection with the Alumni Reunion, February 18-19. On Friday evening, February 18, Dr. James Harvey Robinson, professor of history in Columbia University, gave an address on "Education and the Intellectual Life in the Light of Present History." On Saturday morning Dr. Colin Scott, professor of education in Mount Holyoke College, spoke on "Self Organized Groups in the Kindergarten and Elementary Schools." This address was followed by a report on the experimental playground, a phase of kindergarten education in Teachers College conducted by Miss Mary E. Rankin. Miss Rankin's report was illustrated by pictures of the groups at play.

Miss Angeline Brooks, first head of the kindergarten department of Teachers College, was guest of honor at the Alumni luncheon held Saturday noon in the kindergarten room. Before the guests were seated, an interesting ceremony took place when Miss Brooks lighted the fire in the fire-place which she planned so many years ago. The wood for this occasion had been sent by Miss Brooks from her old home in New England. Little Margaret Noyes, daughter of the toastmistress of the day, handed Miss Brooks the burning taper with which she lighted the fire.

After the luncheon, Professor Hill introduced the toastmistress, Mrs. Charles Noyes, formerly Miss Gertrude Noyes, a graduate of the class of 1892. As the wife of an army officer, this is the first opportunity Mrs. Noyes has had in twenty years to attend the Alumni luncheon. After a few remarks, Mrs. Noyes introduced Miss Brooks, who spoke of the activities of the department in the early days when she was in charge. The other speakers were Miss Luella Palmer of New York City, Miss Takamori of Japan, Miss Pawar of India and Professor Patty S. Hill.

After a cordial welcome to Miss Brooks and the returning Alumni members, Professor Hill spoke of some of the departmental changes and activities of the past year.

The death of Dr. MacVannel in the early part of the year and her tribute to his memory and to his influence in strengthening and uplifting the academic standards of this department

during his connection with it, occupied the greater part of Miss Hill's address. All who knew and worked with Dr. MacVannel knew him as a scholarly gentleman of fine enthusiasm and high consecration. That the kindergarten department has been put upon a full university credit basis is due largely to his efforts. In 1904, when Professor Hill came into the department, there was only one available kindergarten graduate who held a degree, but at the time of Dr. MacVannel's death the number has considerably increased.

When the School of Education was made a graduate school last year, it was decided to accept for kindergarten training college graduates who after a year's work could receive a master's degree and a kindergarten teaching diploma. Four young women have been enrolled on this basis during the current year, with satisfactory results. Another new and successful activity undertaken as a part of the College work is that of classes for mothers, over two hundred of whom have been enrolled.

Looking out upon the future progress of kindergarten education, Professor Hill sees work with the children in the direction of greater tests of the holding power of material presented, and less coercion on the part of the teacher; of less emphasis upon activities which involve the group as a whole and more emphasis upon the "individual pace."

As a possible aim for alumni activities, Professor Hill suggested that a scholarship might be established in honor of Miss Brooks, while she is still with us to enjoy the thought that she has an active representative in the department.

The committee elected for the ensuing year is as follows: Miss Annie Moore, chairman; Miss Louise Atkinson, Miss Delia Kling, Miss Genevieve Sherer, Miss Annie B. Kemp, Miss Gertrude Phillips and Mrs. Brainerd Phillipson.

Nursing and Health Section

The first meetings of this branch of the Alumni Association were held on Friday, February 18, at the College and opened with informal round tables for public health nurses, instructors and superintendents of training schools.

The first general meeting was held Friday evening, Miss Anna Ewing presiding.

Dr. Howe in his address on "The School Nurse as a Factor in Public Health Work" emphasized the rapid growth of school nursing, the increasing demand for it in small communities, and especially the need of state supervision by specially appointed nurses. Slides showing a series of standardized cards used for keeping records of the children were exhibited.

Miss Stringer's paper dealt with the problems of the school nurse in rural districts where ignorance of parents prevents coöperation and lack of hospitals and dispensaries retards efficiency.

Miss Stanley spoke of the opportunities of the school nurse in the teaching field, as reported in the Cleveland School Survey.

Following the papers there was a general discussion on many phases of school nursing: such as the number of children a nurse can care for adequately (at present varying from one thousand to six or seven thousand); whether a nurse should give simple treatments in school or confine her duties to making inspections for physical defects and the detection of communicable diseases, and other important questions.

Miss Nutting spoke of the present demand for school nurses and the preparation which is needed for their work. Numerous requests come to the department for all kinds of specially trained workers, some of them combining the functions of physical educator, health officer, physician and nurse. Miss Nutting did not agree with the suggestion of Dr. Howe that the training schools should begin to establish courses in school nursing as a part of the regular course, the reason being that the training school has no facilities for teaching the highly specialized technic of school work, and moreover that our schools are already overburdened with their task of preparing all-round, expert general nurses. She did emphasize the need, however, of a much more thorough preparation for all nurses in the diseases and nursing care of children, infectious diseases, skin diseases, and diseases of the eye, ear, nose and throat. A knowledge of mental and nervous diseases is also highly important for the school nurse.

The Nurses' Club of the College held an informal reception after the meeting for all visiting members.

The second meeting was held Saturday morning, Miss Sara Parsons of Boston presiding. Miss Nutting gave the address of welcome, reviewing the progress of the past year in the department of nursing and health, noting several important developments in the field of nursing education, and outlining some of the lines of effort in which our graduates have been engaged.

Dr. Strayer introduced the subject of the morning by a brief address on "Standardization in the Field of Education." He called attention to the fact that the scientific study of education is a comparatively recent development, owing its impulse largely to the example of the Johns Hopkins Medical School, which was the pioneer in this country of the movement for the scientific study of medicine. Gradually the idea gained ground that other problems might be investigated and solved by the scientific method and the leaders in education as well as those in other fields began to gather together data, develop standards of measurement, and replace rough generalizations and personal opinions by specific principles and laws. As an example of the application of standardization in the field of educational administration, Dr. Strayer referred to the construction of school buildings, where the most definite information regarding the best site, orientation, plans, materials, ventilation, etc., could now be obtained, and a fairly explicit standard of excellence set up which serves as a more or less exact measure of success and achievement in this particular field. The same method has been applied in many other departments of educational work and even the teaching of mathematics, of reading, or of history, can now be measured by such a scale of values. Two common mistakes in discussing standardization are, first, the idea that standardization is the same thing as uniformity; and second, that a standard is a static thing. Standards vary greatly, even in the same field, some being excellent and some less good, but still much better than no standard at all. The main thing is to work out the best standard possible, and then steadily to improve on it. When once this method has been accepted, the possibilities of substantial progress are assured.

In a very comprehensive paper by Miss Alice Lake on "Principles of Standardization and Applications in Fields Related to Nursing," the tests for scientific management, the principles fundamental to this movement, and the methods by which standards have been worked out in various fields were discussed. Motion study and cyclograph studies of the technic of different manual procedures, when registered by the moving picture machine, give an exact record of the movements employed. These movements are later analyzed, and wasteful motions eliminated. In this way a standard method of technic may be finally worked out.

In a paper on "The Relation of Standardization to the Teaching of Nursing Procedures," Miss Watson showed that application of the general principles of standardization could be made to such nursing tasks as bed-making, the giving of baths, the tray system used for hypodermic injections, eye treatments, catheterization, cupping, etc. The arrangement of materials, the order of work and time consumed in giving the treatments, are all factors which may be standardized, though the end results, so far as the well-being of the patient is concerned, are still more or less intangible and difficult to compute. The materials used with reference to cost, durability and suitability may be studied and a standard established. Even the expenditure of effort on the part of the nurse is subject to measurement. The scientific principle of written standard practice has been satisfactorily adopted in several training schools. Nursing procedures are outlined in detail and placed in the various wards and departments of the hospital, supplemented by diagrams or drawings to give further guidance to the student nurse. According to efficiency principles, the best results in teaching nursing procedures will be obtained by first finding out what methods are now in use (not those supposed to be in use), then after harmonizing their discrepancies, eliminating what is useless and testing out results, a fairly adequate standard may be finally established. This, however, should be subject to change whenever an improved method is discovered.

Miss Amerman of the Henry Street Settlement discussed the need of standardization in public health nursing. She felt that it was most desirable to have uniformity of technic among mem-

bers of a visiting nurse staff, as it promotes efficiency, facilitates the work of the supervisors, and tends to establish confidence in the minds of patients. Miss Amerman then referred in detail to the standardization work carried out by the nurses of the Cleveland Visiting Nurse Association.

Miss Goodrich, in discussing the papers, called attention to various departments of nursing and hospital work where a higher degree of standardization is urgently required, especially emphasizing the need of a careful study and computation of the practical experience given to pupil nurses. The resources of the hospital have never yet been fully utilized, but where they are weak this must be known so that an effort can be made to supplement them through affiliation. The two branches where the greatest gaps are to be found are in the nursing care of infants and children and in the obstetrical training.

Following the general discussion, a short business meeting was held. The change in the constitution providing for an increase of dues from $1.00 to $1.50 a year (including the TEACHERS COLLEGE RECORD) was passed. It was announced that the Association had contributed over a hundred dollars to the Isabel Hampton Robb Scholarship Fund and that the Loan Fund of our own Association was proving very helpful to students of the department. The Publication Committee hopes to have the new pamphlet on post-graduate work ready within a short time.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year: president, Miss Lillian Clayton; vice-president, Miss Bessie Amerman; secretary, Miss Grace Watson; treasurer, Miss Amy Trench; executive committee, Miss Sara Parsons, Miss Carrie Hall, Miss Isabel M. Stewart. About thirty-five members attended the luncheon held at the conclusion of the morning meeting. Many members from out of town were present, including five from Boston, one from South Carolina and one from Maine.

MARYLAND TEACHERS COLLEGE CLUB

The final meeting of the year for the Maryland Teachers College Club was held on the evening of May 12, in McCoy Hall of Johns Hopkins University. Retiring president Weglein presided and Dr. Edward Buchner welcomed the club to the

home of Johns Hopkins University. Dr. Ellwood P. Cubberley, professor of education at Leland Stanford Jr. University, spoke on "The Theory of Modern Education." The public was invited to hear this address and responded by a large attendance. A social and business meeting for the club members took place in the Donovan Room of the University. Here Dr. Cubberley, as visiting professor from Teachers College, reported the current news of the College. The new officers of the club are Mr. Samuel M. North, president, Miss Anne Brewer, vice-president, and Miss Stella E. Brown, secretary-treasurer.

NEW ENGLAND TEACHERS COLLEGE CLUB FORMS

A New England Teachers College Club was organized at a luncheon held at the Bellevue Hotel, Boston, on Saturday, April 29. Seventy-five former students of Teachers College were present at the luncheon. Professor Strayer represented the College on that occasion, and reported College news, particularly with respect to new appointments and new courses, and the work of the summer session.

Among the alumni who spoke were Commissioner Snedden, of Massachusetts, Mrs. Woolman, Superintendent E. W. Fellows, of Framingham, Mass., Mr. E. C. Wixom, principal of the high school at Winchester, Mass., and Superintendent R. L. Wiggin, of Falmouth, Mass. Superintendent B. J. Merriam, of Marblehead, Mass., presided.

It was voted unanimously to form a New England Teachers College Club. Mr. Merriam was elected president, and Miss Cassie Paine secretary-treasurer for the ensuing year. The president had secured in advance a large number of copies of the Summer School Announcement, which were eagerly scanned by those present. The College songs were sung, and other manifestations of enthusiasm were in evidence throughout the meeting.

TOLEDO FORMS TEACHERS COLLEGE CLUB

Alumni of Teachers College in Toledo and its vicinity have just formed a Teachers College club, with Miss Lura Whitney, supervisor of kindergartens, as president, and Miss Mary

Perkins, of the Toledo High School, as secretary-treasurer. The initial membership is about thirty with an outlook of a rapid increase.

WESTERN NEW YORK TEACHERS COLLEGE CLUB

The alumni of Teachers College of western New York, on May 20, formed a Teachers College club to be known as the Teachers College Club of Western New York with Buffalo as headquarters. Mr. D. J. MacDonald, of the State Normal School of Buffalo, was elected president of the club. The first formal meeting was addressed by Professor Briggs of Teachers College. There is every prospect that this new club will within a short time number among the most prominent in existence.

BUTLER SILVER MEDAL AWARDED TO DR. GOODSELL

Dr. Willystine Goodsell, assistant professor of the history of education, has just been awarded the Butler Silver Medal in recognition of her contribution to education in her book, "The Family as a Social and Educational Institution." The Butler Silver Medal is awarded annually to that graduate of Columbia University in any of its parts who has during the year preceding shown the most competence in philosophy or in educational theory.

In 1915 the Butler Silver Medal also went to an alumnus of Teachers College, Professor Ellwood P. Cubberley of Leland Stanford Jr. University, in recognition of his contribution to educational administration.

MR. CONSTANTINE ELECTED SUPERVISOR IN PASSAIC

Mr. J. H. Constantine, for the past four years instructor in woodworking in Teachers College, has just been elected director of industrial and vocational education and household arts in the public school system of Passaic, N. J. In this important new work Mr. Constantine will have supervision of his specialty

in the elementary schools, the high schools, and the vocational schools of the city.

Mr. Constantine was graduated from the School of Science and Technology of Pratt Institute in 1908; was a student in the Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute, 1908-09; studied in the Engineering Department of Columbia University in 1912, and received the degree of Bachelor of Science from Teachers College, Columbia University, in 1916. He has had considerable practical experience in trade and engineering work and as a superintendent of shop and construction work. Before coming to Teachers College Mr. Constantine was an instructor in machine and foundry practice at Pratt Institute in 1908-09, and head of the department of industrial arts in the technical high school of Scranton, Pa., 1909-12.

MRS. LEW HOLDS IMPORTANT POST IN CHINA

Mrs. T. T. Lew (née Miss Y. T. Wu), B.S., Feb., '15, M.A., professional diploma in kindergarten supervision, '15, who returned to China in November, 1915, is now the associate of the Kindergarten Training School, Soochow, China. She has about forty young women from different provinces under her training to be kindergartners. There are two kindergartens, one "free" and one "per," in connection with the school, and a number of kindergartens in different cities and towns under her supervision. She arrived in China on December 15, started to give lectures on the 17th, and is at present carrying a program of twenty-six hours per week. The Central Kindergarten Association of China, which has as its members men and women of different nationalities who are doing kindergarten work in China, held its last conference at Shanghai. Mrs. Lew was elected president of the Association.

The Kindergarten Training School is a part of an extensive school system in Soochow under the Methodist Episcopal Mission South, consisting of kindergartens, elementary schools, high schools, kindergarten training school, and industrial school. The principal of the entire system is Miss V. M. Atkins. She recently wrote about Mrs. Lew:

"I am delighted with her and with the spirit she has brought back to her work. She is already being a great help and I

believe will be nothing but a help to us in this great work. She is putting the school on her heart in such a way that it is bound to succeed. She is self-sacrificing and willing to do everything in her power to help, not only in the class room but in every way that she can. The atmosphere that she creates around her is one of helpfulness and a desire to serve our people. The girls are already very fond of her and she is hard at work building character and teaching them to do the same. She asks nothing for herself except a place where she can be of use."

The principal of the Training School is Miss Kate Hackney, for years a kindergarten supervisor in Tennessee, who went to China last fall. She was at one time a summer session student at Teachers College.

MR. THEISEN ELECTED DIRECTOR OF EDUCATIONAL MEASUREMENTS

Mr. William Walter Theisen will go to Wisconsin next fall as state supervisor and director of educational measurements. His position is unique in that he holds the first state position of this kind.

Mr. Theisen received his Bachelor of Science degree from the University of Nebraska in 1907. In 1907-08 he taught science and mathematics in the high school of Westpoint, Nebraska; from 1908-10 he was principal of the schools in Beemer, Nebraska, and in 1910 he became superintendent of the schools in Pierce of the same state. He spent the summers of 1913 and 1914 at the summer school of the University of Wisconsin, coming to Teachers College as a graduate student in 1915, where he received the degree of Master of Arts. In the summer of 1915 he was a member of the staff of the Maryland State Educational Survey, returning to Teachers College for the year 1915-16. He will receive the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the end of the coming summer session.

MR. WOODY GOES TO THE UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON

Mr. Clifford Woody goes next fall to the University of Washington, Seattle, as assistant professor of education, where he will be associated with Dr. Suzzallo.

Mr. Woody was educated in the public schools of Indiana, graduating from the Thornton High School in 1903. After receiving the degree of Bachelor of Arts from Indiana University in 1908 he taught in the high school at Gaston, Indiana, 1908-12, becoming in the last two years of his stay there the superintendent of the system. He was a graduate student at Indiana University during the summer terms of 1910, 1912, and 1913 and during the academic years of 1912-13, receiving the degree of Master of Arts in 1913. He became a fellow in education in 1913-14 at the same university and taught in the school of education during the spring terms of 1913 and 1914. In 1914 he came to Teachers College as a graduate student, was a fellow in education during the year 1915-16, and will receive the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in June, 1916. In the two years that he has spent at Teachers College he has been prominent in the student and club life of the College and carries with him the well wishes of both faculty and students. In his dissertation, which is entitled "Measurements of Some Achievements in Arithmetic,"[1] he explains how he has developed a new type of arithmetic scale for the measurement of achievement and progress of pupils in elementary grades.

APPOINTMENTS

The following appointments are among those made for the coming year:

Edwin A. Lee, A. M., 1915, assistant professor of industrial education, Carnegie School, Pittsburg, Pa.

Mary Louise Tuttle, B. S., 1910, director, household arts department, Russell Sage College of Practical Arts, Troy, N. Y.

Susie E. Purvis, B. S., 1913, English department, Dana Hall, preparatory to Wellesley College. Miss Purvis has been in the Teachers College English department for the past two years.

Arthur Deamer, A. M., 1913, superintendent of public schools, Fargo, N. D.

Bessie Lee Gambrill, A. M., 1911, will be head of the department of educational psychology in the State Normal School at Trenton, N. J.

[1] Published by Teachers College Bureau of Publications.

Anna J. Gannett, B. S., 1911, now at Bryn Mawr School, Baltimore, will take charge of the Brush Hill School, Milton, Mass.

Bessie Goodrich, formerly assistant in the department of rural education at Kalamazoo, will be principal of the State Normal School at Johnson, Vt.

Elbert Wixom, A. M., 1915, now principal of Winchester High School, Mass., will have the same position in the high school of Auburn, N. Y.

William McCall, A. M., 1914, at present assistant in the department of psychology, will be instructor in experimental education in Teachers College next year. Mr. McCall will receive his Ph.D. degree in June.

Jesse H. Newlon, A. M., 1914, now principal of high school at Decatur, Ill., will have the same position at Lincoln, Neb.

John S. Hosterman, A. M., 1910, for eight years supervisor and principal at Montrose, Pa., will be principal of the high school at Danbury, Conn.

Lawrence van den Berg, A. M., 1914, now superintendent of the training school at the Central State Normal, Mount Pleasant, will have charge of the same work at the Oswego Normal School, Oswego, N. Y.

Anna McMillan, B. S., 1915, director of domestic art at Lewis Institute, Chicago, Ill.

Arthur P. D. Tobien, graduate student, and instructor in mathematics at Blair Academy, N. J., becomes assistant civil service commissioner for the State of New Jersey.

Elmer S. Redman, A. M., 1915, now superintendent of schools at Hornell, N. Y., will hold the same position in Port Chester, N. Y.

Arthur Trester, superintendent of schools at Alexandria, Ind., goes to Martinsville, Ind., in the same capacity.